











Report

UNIVERSITY  
OF CALIFORNIA

of the

Educational Commission

of the

City of Chicago



Appointed by the Mayor, Hon. Carter H. Harrison  
January 19th, 1898

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The Educational Commission of the

*Compliments of*

*Carter H. Harrison*

*Mayor of Chicago*

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BERNARD F. ROGERS

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## **The Educational Commission of the City of Chicago**

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AUTHORIZED BY THE CITY COUNCIL, DECEMBER, 1897  
APPOINTED BY THE MAYOR, JANUARY, 1898  
APPROVED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, MAY, 1898

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WILLIAM R. HARPER, CHAIRMAN

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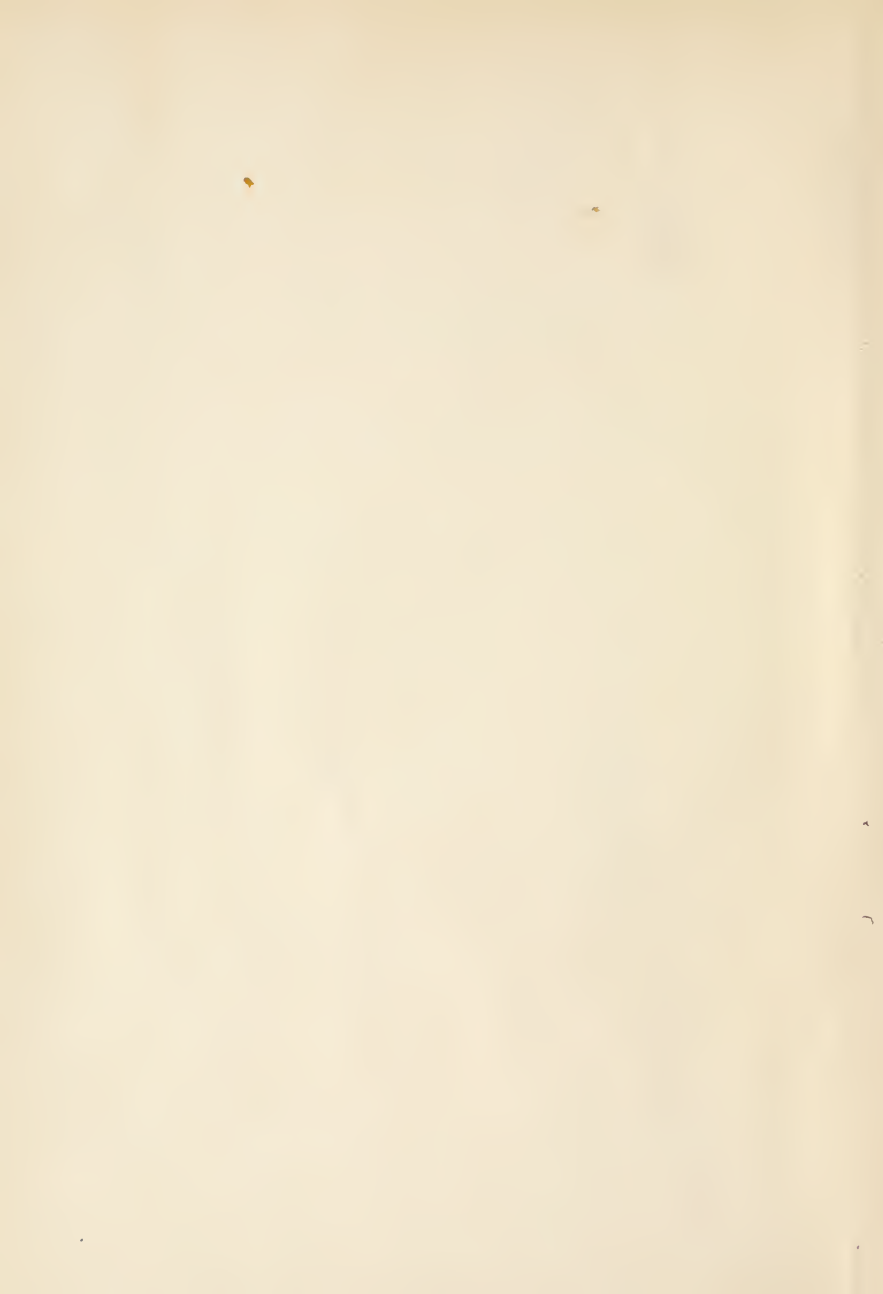
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## Sketch of the Commission and its Work.

On December 6th, 1897, the following communication was presented to the City Council of Chicago:

MAYOR'S OFFICE. }  
December 3d., 1897. }

TO THE HONORABLE, THE CITY COUNCIL:

GENTLEMEN: That the system in operation for the government and supervision of the public schools of Chicago is not giving a measure of results commensurate with the generous financial resources furnished by the people, is acknowledged all around.

With the continual growth of the city, additional burdens keep coming to the door of the board of education, which is seriously handicapped by having to deal with new conditions and difficult developments in the harness of antiquated methods.

A change is needed, a change is essential, in regard to the educational and the business conduct of the school system, and to that end, I request power to appoint a commission to consist of nine, two to be members of the city council, two to be members of the board of education, and five to be outside citizens.

The object of the appointment of the commission is to utilize all that is good in the present system, to discard all that is defective, and to apply new methods where needed.

Yours truly,

CARTER H. HARRISON,  
Mayor.

In answer to this communication, the city council authorized the appointment of the educational commission. [In order to secure fuller representation, the membership was afterward increased to eleven.] The following nominations by the mayor were confirmed by the city council in January, 1898: Charles Alling, Rudolph Brand, Charles R. Corwith, George Duddlestone, William R. Harper, Louis O. Kolitz, Charles A. Mair, Simon J. McPherson, Bernard F. Rogers, Joseph Stolz and Charles M.

Walker. The commission as thus constituted was approved by the board of education in May, 1898.

The commission was chosen to represent the various interests of the city and various points of view in reference to its system of public instruction. Three of the commissioners were members of the city council; two were members of the board of education, and two more had served as members of that body. The commission was non-partisan and non-sectarian, including republicans and democrats and men affiliated with a number of religious bodies. An unprejudiced, critical, but sympathetic attitude toward the public schools was guaranteed by a membership, composed partly of those who had received their early training in these schools, and partly of those whose education had been gained under different conditions.

After one or two preliminary conferences the commission chose William R. Harper chairman, appointed George F. James secretary and adopted a formal plan of work. To determine the scope of their investigations, the members issued first a letter of inquiry covering various phases of school affairs. This letter was widely circulated among all classes of the community, insuring to all who desired, an opportunity to offer suggestions. The commission secured, further, the active co-operation of fifty prominent educators of the country, who, by personal interview and by letter, gave their aid in settling on recommendations for the report. The various subjects in reference to which suggestions were received, were classified and made topics for discussion at successive weekly meetings. Consideration was given at each meeting to the specific criticisms and suggestions of those acquainted with the Chicago schools, to a review of the experience in other cities, and to the advice of those best qualified to speak with authority. The commission was assisted in its work by the conclusions of similar committees in other cities, particularly in New York and Boston, by papers on city school problems, read before state and national meetings of teachers, and by the report of the Committee of Fifteen of the National Educational Association. The active co-operation of the Chicago board of education, the corps of school superintendents, principals and teachers, and the recommendations of various individuals and clubs, enabled the commission to consider every phase of opinion about the school system, before formulating its report.

After five months of work, the members held continuous sessions at Highland Park for one week, and as a result, drew up a series of "Suggestions for the Improvement of a City School System." This pamphlet was privately printed and submitted to those interested in public schools,

both here and in other cities. In this way the commission secured more definite opinions and was enabled during the summer and autumn to review still more carefully the general scope of the report.

In November, continuous sessions were again held, this time in Milwaukee, at which the first draft of the report was read and reviewed. During December the report was again revised. Aside from the continuous sessions held in the spring and in the autumn, the commission gave thirty meetings to its work, in addition to which, much was accomplished through the labors of special sub-committees. The members of the commission were greatly assisted in their later work of drafting a proposed school law, by the kind co-operation of an auxiliary legal committee, composed of William G. Beale, Otto Gresham, Frank J. Loesch, Donald L. Morrill and James Rosenthal.



## Introductory.

TO THE HONORABLE CARTER H. HARRISON, MAYOR, AND TO THE HONORABLE, THE CITY COUNCIL, OF THE CITY OF CHICAGO.

GENTLEMEN: Your educational commission herewith submits recommendations in regard to the administration of the public school system of Chicago. This study was undertaken at your request, and we have endeavored to accomplish it in a spirit of thoroughness and of careful impartiality. Our recommendations are the outcome of a year's study of the local situation and of a careful comparison of our school system with those of other cities. The difficulties and defects which we have found in Chicago are not peculiar to this city, and we have accordingly given much attention to the various reforms which have been instituted and have proved effective elsewhere. In this work we have been fortunate in securing the hearty co-operation of leading educational experts of the country and have been cordially assisted by those most familiar with the school affairs of Chicago. The members of the board of education have been in entire sympathy with the aim of the commission and have offered many suggestions of great value. Our report, therefore, embodies proposals which, it is fair to think, will lead to an improvement in the public school system of this city.

In reviewing the history of the past few years, we have been impressed, first of all, with the high average of ability, integrity and public spirit found in the members of the board of education. The city has certainly not been served in any department by men superior to the board of education in these particulars. A similar statement may fairly be made with reference to the officers of the board, for these have been, in general, competent and faithful in the discharge of their duty. The business affairs of the schools have usually been managed, as far as we can judge, both economically and honestly. The teaching force of Chicago compares favorably with that of other large cities. Public sentiment has justified a liberal policy in the equipment and maintenance of the schools, and we have already accomplished results of which the city may be proud.

Your commission does not believe, however, that the present situation meets fully the needs and rights of the public. Chicago has spent millions of dollars and is spending each year additional millions for public instruction. The board of education should not merely be of high general average, but should include only men of the highest character and enlightenment. The business affairs should be administered by the officers with integrity, of course, but also under regulations which will constrain the greatest economy and efficiency. The teachers of Chicago should be capable and sincere, but they should, in addition, be given every inducement to professional progress and continuous self-development. Public sentiment in this city has always demanded good school buildings and good teaching, but the full possibilities of the system of public instruction have never yet been impressed upon the people.

The machinery of the school system requires radical improvement; for while Chicago has good schools, she has them in despite of grave defects in the present plan of administration. Although the board of education has usually acted in the interests of the people, this has come from no lack of opportunity or even of suggestion to act otherwise, but because successive mayors have generally appointed worthy men and women to fill these places. The joint authority of the city council and the board of education in the purchase of sites and the erection of buildings has caused undue delay and, in some cases, has aroused public suspicion in the matter of school accommodations. The administration of school affairs through committees of the board of education has proved on the whole unsatisfactory. On the business side, it has from time to time resulted in the appointment and retention of unnecessary and inefficient employes, and has occasioned unwarranted difficulty and expense in the securing of school supplies. On the educational side, the management by committees has been prejudicial to school interests in the fundamental questions of the course of study, the text-books and the training and appointment of teachers. Within the limits of the general policy of the board of education, the course of study should be flexible and susceptible of frequent revision far beyond what is feasible under the management by committees of different grades of schools and of the various special studies in the curriculum. Text-books have been authorized and apparatus has been purchased, sometimes without the recommendation and sometimes against the protest of the officers who should control these matters. Pupils have been admitted to the normal school and have been graduated from it without the approval, and occasionally contrary to the expressed judgment of those competent



to decide. Some teachers have been appointed and retained in opposition to the recommendations of those who should practically determine all these questions. The teachers, as a body, have lacked that incentive to good work, which would be felt through an equitable schedule of salaries and a sound plan of promotion. These are vital defects, and criticism would have been heard in larger measure from the people, if an inadequate plan of administration had not left them in comparative ignorance of grave weaknesses in the present system.

That the school machinery of Chicago is largely defective, is not a matter for surprise. The city has grown at a rapid rate, and in this department, as in some others, a plan of administration has been retained which, although good for a city of moderate size, is entirely inadequate for one of nearly two millions. The phenomenal increase of population has introduced problems which are all the more difficult in proportion as the increase came through the rapid annexation of outlying and sparsely-settled territory. The present large membership of the board of education resulted partly from a desire to give these newly-added sections representation on this body. Experience has shown that this action was unwise. A large board leads almost inevitably to a management by committees and thus to confusion of legislative and executive functions. Committee management has imposed upon the board of education a mass of detail work, which must prove exceedingly onerous and distasteful to the members. We have been strongly impressed with the difficulty, under these circumstances, of securing the services of the most able and public-spirited citizens. When, through a small membership, it is possible for each member, freed from petty details, to take an effective hand in moulding the educational policy of the city and to feel that every hour of his work contributes to the solution of the larger questions of school administration, the dignity of the board will be raised in public estimation and appointment to the board will be an honor, gladly accepted by that high class of men and women, whom the vital interests of the people demand for these positions. We respectfully recommend, therefore, legal provision for a small membership of the board and for a distinct differentiation of legislative and executive work. The important question of securing promptly and economically adequate school accommodations for all the children, and especially for the younger children of school age, will not be satisfactorily solved in Chicago until the board of education has the power to condemn and to purchase sites and to erect buildings. We urge, therefore, that this power be secured for the board at the earliest possible date.

The superintendent of schools should be granted much larger powers; he should have not only the initiative, but the determination of all purely educational questions, his action being subject to revision by a majority of the board of education. The arrangement of the course of study, the choice of text-books and of apparatus, the examination, the appointment, the promotion and the dismissal of teachers are duties which properly devolve upon him, acting with his assistants and with the examining board, and subject to overruling by the board.

The business manager should be capable of formulating sound business methods in his department and should be left free in the application of these to the executive work which is assigned him. While held strictly to account by the board of education, he should enjoy by law a freedom, similar to that of the executive head in any well-conducted business enterprise. Subject to the civil service rules of the board, he should have the appointment and the removal of his subordinates, and he should have the control of all the details of his department.

The importance of securing the best possible teaching in the public schools is generally recognized. To achieve a further improvement in this particular, we have recommended that the course of study in the normal school be lengthened from one year to two years, that a physical examination be demanded of all who seek appointment as teachers, that the requirements in scholarship and professional training be continually advanced in fair relation to the increasing opportunities for preparation which are now afforded, and that these opportunities be further widened through the maintenance of teachers' institutes and through the establishment of a professional library for free use by the teaching body. A spirit of enthusiasm and of progress can be best engendered among the teachers by proper recognition of successful effort, and we urge, therefore, the adoption of a schedule of salaries and a scheme of promotion, based not merely on length of service but also on proved efficiency and advancing scholarship.

The course of study in the Chicago schools attests a general public desire for a broad and liberal training of our children. At present, there is need of careful revision in order to secure better correlation and sequence. The time devoted to several studies may well be reduced; this action will permit the introduction, at but slightly increased expense, of new subjects, more particularly of "constructive" work throughout the elementary schools. The number of required text-books may, we think, be properly reduced and a wider latitude allowed in this matter to the principals and teachers in different portions of the city.

We have recommended, also, the general introduction of kindergartens, an extension of the educational opportunities afforded in the evening schools and the incorporation of the vacation school idea in the public system. Recognizing the great value to the city of the system of secondary education, we have suggested that it be strengthened through the establishment of additional manual training schools and of a commercial high school. Chicago has in its school property a magnificent plant which can, we think, be more fully utilized at slightly greater cost, by the opening of school-yards as play-grounds throughout the year and by the use of school buildings as popular educational centers, especially through a system of free evening lectures for adults.

The development and recognition of organized and representative associations of teachers will focus the experience and thought of five thousand Chicago teachers to the great advantage of the public school system and will prove a wholesome stimulus to the teachers themselves; we have accordingly commended the establishment of teachers' faculties and councils, with the right of direct recommendation to the board. We have been impressed, finally, with the desirability of bringing the people into closer touch with school affairs in order to secure more general and more intelligent support for the public system of instruction. A valuable means to this end has been found, we think, in the suggestion of resident commissioners, whose function it shall be to represent the people in the oversight of the schools in various sections of the city.

The report which we have the honor now to present, recommends, as has been seen, some radical changes in school administration. They require and should receive very careful consideration and discussion. The interests which are here involved are so weighty and are of such supreme import to the community, that hasty and inconsiderate action in these matters is above all to be deprecated. We hope, therefore, that the system of school management, which is here proposed, will be entirely and thoroughly reviewed, before any attempt is made to embody its provisions in the school law, applying to our city. The plan of procedure that your commission adopted, has already attracted the attention of the community to many of these questions and public interest has been, we are glad to see, strongly aroused. The determination of some of our recommendations lies in the province of the board of education, which has always shown itself quick to respond to public opinion. Some of the most important of them call for the favorable action of the state legislature and for the purposes of convenient and thorough discussion, we have incorporated the

substance of these in a draft of a provisional bill, which has been made, under our direction, by an auxiliary legal committee, and which is appended to this report. †

Respectfully submitted,

WILLIAM R. HARPER, Chairman.

CHARLES ALLING.

RUDOLPH BRAND.

CHARLES R. CORWITH.

GEORGE DUDDLESTON.

LOUIS O. KOHTZ.

CHARLES A. MAIR.

SIMON J. MCPHERSON.

BERNARD F. ROGERS.

JOSEPH STOLZ.

CHARLES M. WALKER.

GEORGE F. JAMES,  
Secretary.

The Organization of  
the Board of Education

ARTICLE I

Your Commission respectfully makes the following recommendation in reference to the organization of the Board of Education:

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD BE APPOINTED, AS AT PRESENT, BY THE MAYOR, WITH THE CONCURRENCE OF THE COUNCIL;

SECTION 2.—THAT THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS BE CHANGED FROM 21 TO 11;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE TERM OF OFFICE OF MEMBERS OF THE BOARD BE FOUR YEARS, TWO TO BE APPOINTED ONE YEAR, AND THREE EACH OF THE SUCCEEDING THREE YEARS;

SECTION 4.—THAT THE FUNCTION OF THE BOARD BE CHIEFLY LEGISLATIVE, THE EXECUTIVE WORK BEING DELEGATED TO THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE BUSINESS MANAGER;

SECTION 5.—THAT ONLY THREE STANDING COMMITTEES BE APPOINTED, VIZ., A COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL AFFAIRS, A COMMITTEE ON BUSINESS AFFAIRS, AND A COMMITTEE ON FINANCIAL AFFAIRS;

SECTION 6.—THAT THE BOARD BE GIVEN POWER TO CONDEMN SITES FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES;

SECTION 7.—THAT THE BOARD BE GIVEN POWER, INDEPENDENT OF THE CITY COUNCIL, TO PURCHASE SITES AND CONSTRUCT BUILDINGS;

SECTION 8.—THAT PROVISION BE MADE IN THE LAW FOR THE REMOVAL OF MEMBERS OF THE BOARD, BUT ONLY FOR CAUSE AND UPON WRITTEN CHARGES;

SECTION 9.—THAT A FORMAL TITLE BE GIVEN MEMBERS OF THE BOARD, AND THAT THE EXACT TIME AND THE CONDITIONS OF THEIR APPOINTMENT BE CLEARLY INDICATED IN THE SCHOOL LAW.

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD BE APPOINTED, AS AT PRESENT, BY THE MAYOR, WITH THE CONCURRENCE OF THE COUNCIL.

The function of a board of education, acting under the authority of the state law, is to represent the people in the establishment and main-

tenance of the public school system.<sup>(1)</sup> The method of selecting its members has varied widely under different conditions. In the large majority of cases the members are elected directly by the people, either by general ticket or by particular wards or districts.<sup>(2)</sup> The tendency, however, in school systems of large cities has been to substitute for this elective plan selection by appointment.<sup>(3)</sup> This has taken many forms. In one city, the board of education is a part of the city council, its members being appointed by the president of that body.<sup>(4)</sup> In another, the board of education is appointed partly by the city council and partly by the governor of the state.<sup>(5)</sup> In a third, the school authorities are named by the judges of a superior court<sup>(6)</sup>, while in many cities the mayor is ex-officio chairman or member of the board. Such divergences from the general elective plan, show the desire to free the school system

(1) "The American school system is largely founded on the idea of local competency in the management of educational affairs; hence the most important factor in school systems is found in the character of the school boards, and there is no one problem connected with the economy of these systems so important and so difficult of solution as that of securing competent school boards. In Prussia they say, 'As is the teacher, so is the school.' In Holland they say, 'As your inspector is, so is your school.' With us it would be more fundamentally true to say, 'As is your school board, so are your schools.'"—*City School Systems*, p. 14, by John D. Philbrick.

(2) "The experience of large systems seems to favor an appointive system, but in nine-tenths of the school districts of the United States the elective system will probably be continued."—E. E. White, *American School Board Journal*, February, 1898.

"I think the local or ward system of election to school boards altogether bad. It brings to the front obscure men; has made memberships on the board the lowest round on the political ladder, and in some cases has been the cause of a special form of corruption which I will not here describe. I consider a far better method to be election on a ticket at large, which secures better men. For instance, in my own city, Worcester, Mass., the local or ward system prevails, whereas in Springfield, Mass., election on a ticket at large prevails, and the effect is reflected in a very vivid way in the condition of the schools of the two cities. Better than the ward system is the system of appointment by the mayor. In most cases where this plan has been tried, the mayor has felt compelled to rise above politics and appoint the best man. Whether this would work in a large city, however, I have some doubt. A favorable illustration where it has worked well for a long time is Yonkers, N. Y., while Cleveland, Ohio, illustrates the same principle, but in a very different form."—G. Stanley Hall, *President Clark University*.

In thirteen out of twenty-three of the larger representative cities of the country, the board of education is even now elected by the people.

(3) For instance, in New York, Philadelphia and Chicago.

(4) Buffalo.

(5) New Orleans.

(6) Philadelphia.



from connection with local, state or national politics.<sup>(7)</sup> That this result cannot be easily secured, is clearly seen in the variety of solutions proposed. The election of school boards at the same time with either town or city officers has proved an excellent plan in small communities. Even the election of the members of the board by wards does not entail to the same extent,

(7) "The aim of the most intelligent friends of our schools has been to separate their administration as far as practicable from the influence of party politics. In this direction, however, much remains to be desired. Everywhere there are unscrupulous politicians who do not hesitate to improve every opportunity to sacrifice the interests of the schools to the purposes of the political machine. Here is found the source of the most general as well as the most serious evil of our city systems. Long ago this evil became so grievous in some of our largest cities, that the election of school boards by popular vote had to be abandoned."—*"City School Systems," p. 15., by John D. Philbrick.*

"Yes, divorce school boards absolutely from the contaminating influences of politics and sectarianism. Non-partisan and non-sectarian school boards are the need of the hour, if we would approach the ideal in school government. We will not then be humiliated by having it published broadcast over the land that seven members of the school board were fined and sentenced to jail by the supreme court of a state, for contempt in refusing to obey the mandate of said court, forbidding said members from conspiring together to stifle and thwart the will of the people, in order to carry out their own selfish and partisan purposes. Non-partisan and non-sectarian boards will never act thus. I speak from long experience along this line, as I am a member of a board that has been thus constituted for more than twenty-five years. I am well aware that it requires constant care and attention to maintain a board upon this basis, but the result will more than repay the labor. You will have to combat the efforts of scheming politicians, who are ever on the alert to obtain control of the school management, as they well know that it can be made a Corliss engine of power, if so directed, to advance a man's political ambition."—*R. L. Yeager, President Kansas City School Board, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 976.*

"\*\*\*I would also speak of a danger that threatens our public school system, and that is, the tendency to allow political influence to encroach upon the duties and authorities of those who have been appointed to direct the educational affairs of our city. While I think that these influences are not so strong in Chicago as they are in some of the other large cities, still the tendency is growing toward the exercise of political influence in the management of our schools. I need hardly say how demoralizing this practice is, both to teachers and to employees. In my experience on the board, I have found many teachers and employees who evidently had more faith in their political influence for promotion and retention than they had in doing their work well and earning favors by merit alone. The future welfare and usefulness of the public schools of this country demand that they should be kept entirely free from influence of any kind that would in any way lessen the efficiency of the teaching or the management of the schools."—*Louis Nettelhorst, Report of President, Chicago Board of Education, 1893.*

"The affairs of the school board should be wholly separated from municipal business and the school organization should have no connection whatever with municipal politics. There is no ground for any connection between the two. The public school system rests upon the taxing power of the state and that is wholly within the control of the law-making power. The state is bound to see that schools are maintained in every part of the state. The school system is a state system administered in the American fashion through representatives chosen by the people in their local assemblages, or in any other way the state may direct. But these officers do not cease to be representatives of a state system, and there is every reason why their tenure and their powers should be

under these circumstances, the evil results which are apparent in some of our larger cities. With increased population, however, election by wards has generally proved defective<sup>(8)</sup>; for it, has been substituted in our larger cities, the election by general ticket of school trustees to rep-

wholly independent of municipal boards and officers."—"The Crucial Test," by *Andrew S. Draper*.

"The board should be selected without any reference to politics, religion or the locality from which the member comes. Of the 21 men appointed by Mayor Strong, in New York, the politics of 15 are still unknown to the great mass of people connected with the school system."—*Nicholas Murray Butler*, on "City Schools" (from address in Boston, not published).

"Ward politics is the great bugbear of the city law-maker, and any amount of inventive genius has been exercised to devise a way of choosing school boards that would make it impossible for the ward boss to interfere. Incompetent principals and teachers chosen to 'encourage' political henchmen; contracts corruptly given to fatten the treasuries of the partisan organizations; assessments of teachers for campaign funds, unseemly intrigue strifes and bickerings within the schools themselves by the adherents of the different parties; the son of some local heeler allowed to be habitually unruly, to the detriment of the general school discipline, because the teacher fears for his position if he attempts to assert his authority—all these evils and more are feared by those who have seen the results when local politics has had undue influence."—*James C. Boykin*, in *Educational Review*, March, 1897.

(8) "The members of the school board should be representative of the whole population and of all their common educational interests, and should not be chosen to represent any ward or subdivision of the territory, or any party or element in the political, religious or social life thereof. Where this principle is not enforced, the members will feel bound to gain what advantage they can for the sub-district or special interests they represent; bitter contests will ensue, and the common interests will suffer."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 102 (reprint by *Henry Holt & Co.* from *Educational Review*, March, 1895.)

"The efficient administration of public schools forbids the committing of responsibilities and duties of boards of education to sub-district boards. This has been a fatal weakness in school organization wherever attempted, whether in the city or in the township. One board of education and only one should administer school affairs. Sub-district boards in townships or towns have crippled school progress in every state where they have been organized."—*E. E. White*, in *American School Board Journal*, February, 1898.

"The evil of this is apparent. Its most striking evidence is in the struggle for money whenever an appropriation is to be obtained for any particular purpose, especially for school buildings. In this city now, for instance, a large section is deprived of a very much needed school building because the democratic common council and the republican school board could not agree as to the location of the school, whether in the democratic fourteenth ward or in the republican thirteenth ward. This seems almost too absurd to be true, but it is, and it also suggests the third evil, of which I shall speak later. Members representing wards also take not only a great interest in their wards, but often interfere unduly in the matter of appointment and transfer. In the past rather more than now, the appointment of teachers was considered a perquisite of the ward commissioners, and it is readily seen this power was a most influential political factor. The commissioners have even assigned to themselves the right to interfere in matters of discipline. These are instances of the evils almost invariably connected with the ward system."—*A City Superintendent*.



resent the city. At first these were chosen at the regular municipal elections, but, as it was found that in the excitement of a general campaign the interests of the city were not properly respected, a separate election of the members of the school board was frequently ordered.<sup>(9)</sup> This solution has been found in many cases eminently satisfactory. In a city of medium size, where an enlightened public sentiment can be awakened, and where a general knowledge of the condition of the schools can be easily secured, and where, further, it is possible for the people to know intimately the candidates for this position, perhaps no better method can be followed. In cities of the largest size, such ideal conditions do not prevail, and it is not surprising to find that New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, with many other cities, have successively adopted a different plan, by substituting, as already indicated, the method of appointment for that of election. In New York and Chicago, at least, this has not been a surrender by the people of their direct control of public schools, but rather another instance of the general principle of concentrating authority. The board of education being appointed by the mayor, the

(9) "The theory of making every office an elective office is good, but it fails of the best results, especially when political excitement runs high, as is unfortunately too often the case in the cities of our country. There is no office within the gift of the people which should be so thoroughly severed from all political complications and possibilities as that pertaining to the education of the children. The farther the board of education can be removed from contingencies of party politics the better. To this end the time of election or selection should be as far as possible from the heat of a political contest. The nominees in case of an election, should not be the product of caucuses, but presented by a committee representing the prominent political parties of the time in equal numbers from each party; the nominating committee being selected by the central committees of the parties, each central committee naming an equal portion of the nominating committee. There will then be implied freedom from any expressed or implied pledges, and no claim can be laid on account of special service rendered in the election. If this prove impracticable, I can see no other feasible method of a popular election."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

"When men are elected on a general ticket, it is almost always the case that school board positions are looked upon as the tail-end of the ticket. Men who fail to receive nominations for other positions, regarded by party managers as more responsible or more lucrative, are given school board nominations as a consolation prize. Then in the board, members play for partisan advantage continually, while the school suffers. In our city this year, the election resulted in a tie—fifteen democrats and fifteen republicans. The organization of the board was delayed for several weeks while the two parties were trying to hit upon some mutually acceptable division of the spoils. An attempt was made to treat all official positions, including that of the superintendent of schools, as party spoils. Last year the election of a primary supervisor was held up for two months, because the board standing sixteen to fourteen, and one of the sixteen being absent, the minority declined to concur in the election, hoping thereby to gain some partisan advantage."—*A City Superintendent.*

city administration is thus made directly responsible for the condition of the free school system.<sup>(10)</sup> The Philadelphia idea of appointment by the judges has the merit of taking the schools out of politics to a certain extent, but involves a distinct danger by imposing upon the judiciary duties foreign to its members, and liable in many ways to lessen their efficiency in the discharge of their proper functions. In the case of New Orleans, the selection of a part of the board by the governor is a recognition of the supreme authority of the state in the administration of schools; but this system has the appearance of a shirking on the part of the people of a responsibility properly devolving upon them. The method followed in Buffalo, of leaving the choice of the board of education to the city council, would be an admissible plan in American cities if that body always represented the best interests of the community and if there were not the danger that the members of the council, in the multiplicity of their duties, would in some way neglect or act contrary to the welfare of the schools.

If, however, the board of education is not to be directly elected by the people, (a plan to be avoided in Chicago, for the reasons mentioned,) the experience of other cities, as well as the history of the public school system of this city, justifies the appointment of the board of education by the mayor.<sup>(11)</sup> This plan, moreover, is in harmony with the principle of concentration of authority and responsibility. The mayor above all represents the entire city, and nowhere, if not in his hands, can this duty be placed with full expectation that his action will meet the general sentiment and desires of the people. He may be held strictly responsible for the appointments he makes; and since citizens are on no point more

(10) This statement is hardly true of Philadelphia, where the principle of democratic government seems in a sense to have been surrendered in a desire to divorce educational affairs from politics.

(11) "If the members of the board are appointed, the mayor of the city is likely to be the official to whom the power of appointment may most safely be intrusted. The mayor is not suggested because his office should sustain any relation to the school system, but in spite of the fact that it does not and should not. The school system should be absolutely emancipated from partisan politics and completely dissociated from municipal business. But we think that the appointments should be made by some one person rather than by a board. The mayor is representative of the whole city and all its interests. While not chosen with any reference to the interests of the schools, he may be assumed to have information as to the fitness of citizens for particular responsibilities and to be desirous of promoting the educational interests of the people. If he is given the power of appointment, he should be particularly enjoined, by law, to consider only the fitness of individuals, and to pay no regard to party affiliations, unless it be particularly to see to it that no one political party has an overwhelming preponderance in the board."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 101.*

sensitive than in regard to the administration of the school system, the mayor can be reasonably relied upon to act in this matter both conscientiously and intelligently. It is safe to say that no city administration, however strongly entrenched in public esteem, would act in any manner prejudicial to the schools without incurring quick and sure condemnation.<sup>(12)</sup>

The objection has been raised that the plan here proposed might result in a partisan board of education.<sup>(13)</sup> The peculiar sensitiveness, however, of the American people in regard to their school system is more than a counterbalance to the natural inclination of a mayor to appoint the school trustees solely from among his political friends.<sup>(14)</sup> The ad-

(12) If the reflection which leads to the placing in the hands of the mayor the appointment of the board of education be well founded, the natural conclusion might be that he should possess this power unrestricted. To divide this duty between him and the city council by requiring the confirmation by the latter of his appointments, would seem to lessen his responsibility without securing any additional safeguard to the integrity of the educational system. Municipal history in the United States offers many instances of mayors who have fallen below the general average of enlightenment and honesty, and some instances of city councils wholly representative of the community in both particulars, but rarely has a mayor been chosen to whom the people would not intrust the appointment of school authorities more confidently than to the council which acts with him. At this time, since no friction has arisen in Chicago on account of this division of responsibility, there seems no occasion for a change of policy in this matter.

(13) It has not seemed necessary to discuss here the advisability of a bi-partisan constitution of the school board. The history of American cities has yet to show that this offers a solution of the difficulty of taking particular functions out of the realm of politics.

"Beware above all things of bi-partisanship in the board."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, on "City Schools."*

"Attempts to eliminate partisanship from school administration by arraigning an equal number of partisans against each other, have led to mischievous consequences. The true course, is to insist that all who have any share in the management of the schools shall divest themselves of partisanship, whether political or religious, in such management, and give themselves wholly to the high interests intrusted to them. If it be said that this cannot be realized, it may be answered without admitting it, that even if that were so, it would be no reason why the friends of the schools should not assert the sound principle and secure its enforcement as far as possible. We must certainly give no countenance to makeshifts which experience has shown to be misleading and expensive. The right must prevail in the end, and the earlier and more strongly it is contended for, the sooner it will prevail."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 102.*

(14) "The people of this city will never brook any subserviency of their public school system to any clique or party, and those who attempt to thwart them in their determination to intelligently carry out the requirements of the law, will be swept away as by the besom of destruction."—*Allan C. Story, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1889.*

vantage that he might gain for himself or for his party by such appointments would certainly prove only temporary, if the action of the board should show anything but a disinterested desire for the good of the public schools. Political shrewdness, if nothing more, should, in the long run, dictate the selection of upright, enlightened citizens fully representative of the best forces of the community.<sup>(15)</sup> By this is not meant the appointment of men, prominent merely on account of their racial, religious, and, least of all, political connections. The board of education which public sentiment is coming slowly but surely to demand, will not be made up of members of particular sects or political parties as such, or of those bound together by the natural ties of a common birth.<sup>(16)</sup> The

(15) "We need and must have, broad-gauged, liberal minded, cultured and good business men on our boards, if we advance our schools as they should be. I cannot state this too strongly. Look well to the personal and moral character of the members of your school board. Also separate the work and finances of your school board absolutely from the city government, make it independent and free from city control and domination."—*K. L. Yeager, President, Kansas City School Board, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 974.*

"The idea of representing nationalities and localities, or peculiarities of sentiment, political or religious, is an erroneous idea and is amenable to the charges of partiality and inefficiency. The selection of persons on the grounds named, is sure to bring into the board of education extremists, or such excessive harmony as is found in log-rolling practices, and will surely be fatal to economy and efficiency."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

"Certain qualifications to be fixed by statute, should be requisite for membership. The members need not all have the highest scholastic training, but a part of them should be required to have such training; not all of them need be prominent for their business capacity, but a part of them should be thus prominent; and no man should be eligible for a place on the board without the highest character for integrity and capacity for the work. To define the qualifications in a form that might be enacted into law would require care, but it would not be difficult; and the law should provide that the fact might easily be determined in court, if it appears that any person has been elected or is a candidate for a place on this board, without possessing the requisite qualifications. It is a serious matter, though essential and even indispensable in a republic, to compel parents to educate their children in a public school if they are not able to educate them elsewhere; and so the law provides that no teacher can be lawfully employed, or collect his pay if employed, without a certificate of character and fitness from the board of education. But there is no guarantee that the members of the board that certify to the teacher's character and fitness are themselves fit for this important duty. The qualifications of president and vice-president of the United States and of senators and representatives in congress, are defined in a general way in the constitution; and it is not too much to ask that the qualifications of members of the board of education be fixed by state law."—*Albert P. Marble, in Educational Review, September, 1894.*

(16) "Many things during the last year have emphasized the importance of keeping our public school system entirely outside of sectarian lines. The public schools should be removed as far as possible from all sectarian influences. The religious bigot, as well as the irreligious bigot, the Protestant bigot and the Catholic bigot, will always try to make themselves felt in public school instruction or against it; but they should all be resolutely and emphatically suppressed. Until they can view the working of the school system from the same secular standpoint with which they would look at the working of a steam engine, their

sense of a community already condemns a mayor who is swayed in his appointments of school authorities by any purely personal or political considerations. It will in the future no less surely condemn the idea of attempting to secure a representative school board by the allotment of the membership to geographical, racial, religious, or political divisions of the city. It is with confidence in the truth of these considerations that your commission recommends giving the mayor the appointment of the board of education.

## SECTION 2.—THAT THE NUMBER OF MEMBERS BE CHANGED FROM 21 TO 11.

The method of appointment thus settled, the question of the proper number of members of a board of education<sup>(17)</sup> presents few difficul-

ties. "Voices ought not to be heeded, and they should certainly be excluded entirely from any connection with it except so far as their children should reap its benefits."—*Louis Nettelhorst, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1891.*

(17) "I am strongly of the opinion, based upon a long experience in school work, that the public interests will be better subserved if the membership of the board of education is reduced in number. My judgment is that nine members would be sufficient to perform the work of administering the school affairs, provided persons are appointed to membership who can give the requisite time to the performance of their duties.

"In order to accomplish the best results, no one should be appointed to membership in the board who is not in a position to give the affairs of the board the preference over his own private business interests, that is to say, I think that a member of the board should make it his first duty to perform the services required of him as such member, instead of leaving the performance of these duties to such time and opportunity as he may have after he has attended to his own business affairs. Please do not understand by this statement that anything in the nature of a criticism of the manner in which members of the board of education have performed their duties is intended, but it necessarily follows that with a large membership the responsibility is divided, and there must be individual instances where persons serving as members of the board of education cannot afford to wholly neglect their private interests for the benefit of the public.

"It may be that with such requirements as above indicated, it will be difficult to obtain members for the board of education, as nearly every one who is competent to serve upon such a board has private interests which demand a large portion of his time. If such should be the case, it may be desirable to pay to members of the board of education a small salary.

"I am not in favor of any change in the method of appointing members of the board of education, and do not agree with the idea which has recently been advanced, that the public interests would be better protected if the members



ties.<sup>(18)</sup> The original conception of the function of school trustees was that of the fullest inspection and supervision, both of the school system and of its officers, both of government and of instruction. When this idea was outgrown, the method of election by school wards or districts succeeded. The difficulties and dangers inherent in the second plan are evident to-day in the larger cities of the country. If a school trustee considers himself a representative of a given section of the city, his efforts are constantly directed toward securing for his constituents the largest possible share of the public funds, both for buildings and for teachers. The result

were appointed by the judges of Cook County, or elected by the people. My observation has been that the mayors of this city have been at all times desirous of giving to the board of education the best appointments which circumstances would permit them to make, and if errors have been made in the selection of the members of the board, such errors are no more numerous than would doubtless be made if the appointment was controlled by other parties."—*Donald L. Morrill*.

<sup>(18)</sup> "The number of the members of a board of education should be small. In cities of less than 500,000 inhabitants it should not be more than nine and preferably not more than five. In the very largest cities it may be extended to fifteen."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 102.

"The school committee shall be small because a small one is more efficient, less talkative, cannot cut itself up into small committees, and cannot apportion out patronage."—*Nicholas Murray Butler*, on "*City Schools*."

"It should not be so large in numbers as to become a public debating school."—*"The Crucial Test,"* by *Andrew S. Draper* (address in Boston).

"A small body in number is the most effective. There can be no shifting of responsibility. The entire board will be a working committee, organized in sections for specific work, but engaged as a whole upon all general business affairs, such as the care of school property, the erection of school buildings, the determination of salaries. One section of the committee should be especially delegated to confer with the superintendent as to the qualification of teachers, and their assignment; another section to the control of educational funds. There is no city in the United States where the work is not done by less than ten men. From five to nine members of the board of education, selected with special reference to their general intelligence and business tact, will be found ample."—*J. L. Pickard*, in *Education*, September, 1883.

"The smaller the school board the better. We have a good deal of experience in Pennsylvania and large boards invariably work badly. I would feel inclined to lower the number below eleven, except that perhaps you will have to work a good deal with committees, and with so many interests perhaps it will be as well to have as many as eleven."—*George Morris Philips*, *Principal State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.*

There is one New England town which had originally 200 school trustees—one for the direction and supervision of each teacher in the public school system.

"To the recommendations submitted in this article I yield my unqualified approval. In my judgment, this change in the organization of the board will greatly simplify and facilitate the conduct of the affairs of the board. At present, the organization and management of affairs is too cumbersome and irresponsible."—*D. R. Cameron*, *Ex-President Chicago Board of Education*.

is a continual strife and rivalry within the board, culminating, perhaps, in a division of school funds according to some formal principle opposed to the proper elasticity of school administration. No method has been more universally condemned, both in theory and practice. The recognition of this fact has already led to the reduction in our largest cities of the membership of the board at least fifty per cent.<sup>(19)</sup>, for it is evident that a board can fairly represent a city as a whole with a much smaller membership than would be necessitated by representation from each ward. Even this change, however, does not represent the limit of this tendency. Within a few years the membership of the board in several cities has been further reduced by one-half<sup>(20)</sup>, owing to a new conception of the functions of this body. In brief, this conception is that a board of education should have legislative rather than executive duties. For the proper fulfillment of these, experience has shown that a small board is preferable. Not only the tendency in other states to reduce the membership, but also the practically universal sentiment in Chicago against the present workings and methods of the board of education, lead to the belief that a small board would be to the decided advantage of the local school system.

Whether with the board of education thus reduced in number, it would be advisable to offer members compensation for their work, has been much debated.<sup>(21)</sup> Sound arguments seem to have been advanced on either side from a theoretical point of view, and hereafter experience may show the advisability of paying members; but until the plan of a smaller membership has been tested, there is no need to suggest such action.

(19) To mention an extreme instance, Boston had in 1875 a school committee numbering 116, a membership due to the idea of local representation and resulting from successive annexations of school districts. The increase from 15 to 21 members in Chicago came from the same causes.

(20) Baltimore has recently changed from 22 to 9, and St. Louis from 21 to 12, and Boston proposes 15 instead of 24.

(21) "One step more: the office of member of a board of education should be a salaried office. The important service rendered is worthy of compensation. If any person elected sees fit to decline the salary, it is an act of benevolence. But some will say, 'Does not the offer of a salary prove a temptation to some impecunious incompetent?' The temptation is not half as great as that which lies concealed in some prospective perquisite, and an eye to the main chance is more intent upon the latent than the patent pecuniary reward. Again, those who select, will feel more free to call their best friends into an office which furnishes some return for their valuable services, while an 'empty honor' will be considered sufficient for a hungry hanger-on."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

SECTION 3.—THAT THE TERM OF OFFICE OF MEMBERS OF THE BOARD BE FOUR YEARS, TWO TO BE APPOINTED ONE YEAR, AND THREE EACH OF THE SUCCEEDING THREE YEARS.

The question of the time of service of the members is not open to doubt.<sup>(22)</sup> Baltimore and St. Louis have recently doubled the number of years for which the members are chosen, and public opinion in Chicago seems to favor for many reasons a similar change. The duties of a school trustee imply not only broad sympathies, educational insight and intelligence, and considerable experience in affairs, but also a knowledge of the school system and of the educational needs of the city, which cannot be easily gained. The usefulness of even an active and devoted member of the board begins practically only with his second year of service, and can be accounted but fairly adequate only after two years. This has been true hitherto when the organization of the board demanded of the individual member a knowledge of the details of school administration. It will be equally true when there is demanded of him, instead, a broad grasp of general problems and a full comprehension of the wishes of the people of the city in regard to their schools.<sup>(23)</sup> A term of three years is manifestly too short. If the interests of the public are to be properly served, four years is none too long a time for membership. Many desirable men, it may be objected, would not be willing to serve for such a period; but with a revision of the kind of duties devolving on board members and with a fuller comprehension by individuals of their increased usefulness in a longer term, your commission believes that it will be easier and not more difficult to secure a good board.

(22) "The next point to be considered is the length of service. If experience has any value, continued service is most profitable. The cry for rotation in office should never be heard in its application to school authorities. The harm resulting from frequent changes will be widely felt. Incompetency of teachers often escapes the attention of the man just leaving an office, and fails to arrest the attention of his successor until too late for his action, and the same observation will apply to the other features of the work."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

"The term for which members should be appointed should be a long one, say five years."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 102.*

(23) "Such a conception as this dignifies the idea of a board of education. It makes them a body of men and women who must post themselves in regard to the tendencies and progress of school work, who must know the needs of the people and what they desire from the schools, and who also know in what way the people will derive most from the schools."—*Joseph W. Errant, Member of Chicago School Board, 1897.*



SECTION 4.—THAT THE FUNCTION OF THE BOARD BE CHIEFLY LEGISLATIVE, THE EXECUTIVE WORK BEING DELEGATED TO THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE BUSINESS MANAGER.<sup>(24)</sup>

The history of the board in Chicago clearly indicates that the functions of a board of education should be legislative and not executive.<sup>(25a)</sup>

No one impediment has acted more strongly against the securing of the very best men for the board than the general recognition that membership implies an enormous amount of detail and routine work. Such labor

(24) "I am firmly of the opinion that the executive and administrative officers of the board should be vested with a reasonable discretion in the performance of their duties, and should be held strictly responsible for the manner in which such duties are performed. An executive officer who is at liberty to appeal to a committee or to a member of the board for the purpose of obtaining authority to do some necessary act is thereby given an opportunity of shirking all responsibility and is prevented from displaying any of those qualities which an executive officer should possess. I do not mean by this to intimate that executive officers, holding their positions by appointment of the board, should be vested with a power to expend public money without authority, or to perform any of the functions which properly belong to the members of the board. My idea about the matter is that after general rules have been framed for the government of executive officers, and general instructions have been given to guide them in the performance of their duties, there should, generally speaking, be no further need of appealing to committees or members of the board until those instructions have been fulfilled and the executive officer is ready to report as to the manner of fulfillment.

"I am firmly of the opinion that all executive officers and employes of the board, of every kind, should be appointed wholly on account of their merit, and should hold office during good behavior, substantially in accordance with the apparent intention of the legislature in framing the Teachers' Pension Act. If for good legal reasons it is impossible or inadvisable to appoint officers from the approved lists of the municipal civil service commission, then a similar commission or committee should control the appointments to service under the board of education, thereby relieving members of the board from the importunities of those desiring appointments. For the same reason, the superintending force of the educational department should, generally speaking, recommend the appointment of teachers and changes in text-books."—*Donald L. Morrill*.

(25a) "The board of education should be vested only with legislative functions, and should be required to act wholly through formal and recorded resolutions. It should determine and direct the general policy of the school system. Within reasonable limits as to amount, it should be given power in its discretion, to levy whatever money may be needed for school purposes."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 103*.

"I suggest, as a general business principle, that all the business of the board should rest in the hands of responsible school officers—one for each department, with a fair subdivision of the work, separating, perhaps, the department of instruction, that of buildings and repairs, school-room supplies and finances. All

cannot be expected from the kind of men whose appointment is demanded by the best interests of the schools. The duties of the board of education as fixed by law involve the establishment and maintenance of a public school system. This implies that the board, acting for the people, shall prescribe the general educational policy of the city, determining on the one hand the kind and the number of buildings to be erected for school purposes, and on the other hand, outlining what shall be taught in the schools, and spending economically and fairly the school funds for these purposes. The administration in detail of the schools, either on the educational or on the business side, cannot be carried on by the board acting

the business of the board should be transacted through these officers, and the committees of the board should be supervisory but not executive.”—*F. Louis Soldan, Superintendent, St. Louis Public Schools.*

“In what you propose respecting the two great phases of school management, that pertaining to the business and that of education, you have not only taken high ground regarding the centralizing of authority in the person of two competent experts, but have placed around these executive heads such safeguards as will prevent possible abuses on the one hand and unnecessary interference on the other.”—*S. T. Dutton, Superintendent, Brookline, Mass.*

“The administration of a system of schools involves two quite distinct functions—the legislative and the executive. The state legislature enacts laws for the organization and general management of schools, and the board of education in each district is endowed by the state with other necessary legislative powers. This legislative action is the chief function of the board of education as an organized body. All experience shows that a body cannot wisely attend to the details of organization.”—*E. E. White, in American School Board Journal, February, 1898.*

“The board should confine itself to the discussion and establishment of plans and policies. It should not interfere in the carrying out of details. These should be left to those who are employed in the various departments, because of their special fitness.”—*Joseph W. Errant, Member of Chicago School Board, 1897.*

“The leading principle embodied in the new school legislation vests, subject to the supervision and approval of the board, the broadest powers in the hands of the executive departments, who in turn are to be held to the strictest responsibility for their management. Thus in the matter of the selection of teachers, janitors and employes, the law contemplates that the members of the board are in no wise to interfere. Such selection is left to the department officers, and the board is given final supervisory control over these matters by the power of approval or disapproval. This general policy of giving an officer the greatest latitude in the selection of subordinates and in their government, and holding him directly responsible for satisfactory results in his department, met with the fullest approval of the members of the new board, hence, their aim, in the revision of the rules, was to extend such policy to every branch of the business of the schools and to harmonize all by-laws and regulations with the statute law in that respect. The board fully realized that, under the new plan, the selection of its executive officers was a matter of the greatest importance. To this task the members applied themselves at once with a single purpose, to-wit: the selection of the fittest and most reliable men.”—*Paul F. Coste, President's Report, St. Louis Board of Education, 1897.*

as a whole, and should not be carried on by a system of committee management. Against the latter plan are arrayed many arguments, founded on the lack of competency of even the best boards as far as the educational work is concerned, and on the lack of time as far as the details are involved.

SECTION 5.—THAT ONLY THREE STANDING COMMITTEES BE APPOINTED; VIZ., A COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL AFFAIRS, A COMMITTEE ON BUSINESS AFFAIRS, AND A COMMITTEE ON FINANCIAL AFFAIRS.

The work of the board of education, when the details of management are referred, as here implied, to the proper executive officers, can be accomplished easily and satisfactorily with three committees, at the most, fulfilling, subject to the approval of the board, the three functions of securing and maintaining school accommodations, of providing the necessary instruction, and of equitably dividing and spending school funds for these purposes.<sup>(25b)</sup>

SECTION 6.—THAT THE BOARD BE GIVEN POWER TO CONDEMN SITES FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.

A board thus constituted, may properly be given the power to condemn sites for school purposes, a power which in other large cities, where similar conditions prevail, has been found necessary for securing, in the shortest time and to the best advantage, the additional property required by the growth of the school system. This power, which can be justly claimed by the board of education on the general ground of public interest, need not, with proper restrictions, be susceptible of abuse, and considering the admitted necessity of increased accommodations, will be of immediate and great practical assistance to the Chicago board. It will give the school system of the city the sites needed, where they are needed, and at a price more approximate to real values than has frequently been the case, and will do away with much danger and difficulty in connection with defective titles. The process of condemnation might cause some delay, but this has been avoided in New York by the limitation of the length of such a suit. Recourse to condemnation may be had, if it seems desirable, only in cases where particular sites are needed imperatively for school purposes.<sup>(26)</sup>

<sup>(25b)</sup> The proper number of committees is discussed further in Article II.

<sup>(26)</sup> "The proceedings of the board of education with reference to the purchase of real estate for school purposes during the past ten years, will show numerous occasions when a considerable expenditure of public money would have been avoided if the right to condemn property for school purposes existed in this city. The right of eminent domain has been given by statute to nearly every



SECTION 7.—THAT THE BOARD BE GIVEN POWER, INDEPENDENT OF THE CITY COUNCIL, TO PURCHASE SITES AND CONSTRUCT BUILDINGS.

In accordance with the general principle of concentration of authority and responsibility already mentioned, your commission would recommend that to the board of education be given the power, independent of the city council, of purchasing sites and erecting buildings.<sup>(27)</sup>

form of a public corporation which exists in this state, including the boards of directors in rural school districts, where it is not needed, but for some reason has never been given to the school authorities in large cities.

"The necessity of using this power in the city of Chicago arises from the fact that in the purchase of a school site it is necessary to acquire title to several parcels of real estate, sometimes rendering it unavoidable to make purchases from eight or ten different owners, and in many cases the purchase is further complicated by the improvements located upon the real estate. Under this state of affairs, it is possible for a designing person to demand an exorbitant price for his particular holding, and the city is obliged to pay the same or to abandon the purchase of the entire site. As a consequence, it has frequently happened that the city of Chicago has paid outside prices for its real estate for this purpose rather than the fair market value, and in cases where the land has been improved, the amount of money expended for the purchase of the improvements has frequently been of little benefit to the board of education. I do not consider that it would be necessary to resort to condemnation proceedings except in rare cases, but if the right to condemn exists, owners of real estate desired for school purposes will be more likely to accept a reasonable value for their land, and it will be impossible for an owner of a single lot, located, possibly, in the center of a proposed school site, to resort to extortionate prices.

"The right of eminent domain would also be of great value in acquiring title in certain cases where technical defects exist in the title to the real estate proposed to be purchased."—*Donald L. Morrill*.

<sup>(27)</sup> "With the responsibility for city schools divided between the city council and the board of education, we have seen during the last two years that the object of the law and the intentions of our law-makers have been frustrated and seriously impaired. The lamentable fact that over thirty-eight thousand children are without any school facilities, is too serious not to attract and demand immediate attention. This number will be largely increased before the necessary school buildings can be erected, even if ordered now, and there is the greatest danger that the question of locating schools will degenerate into a mere political contest. The members of the board have heretofore studiously avoided anything that might give a political bias or character to their actions; but it will be difficult, if not impossible, to continue this, if the present deadlock on the subject of new schools is continued."—*Allan C. Story, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1889*.

"In the matter of concurrence by the city council in action by the board for which such concurrence is required, the inconsistency heretofore prevailing has been allowed to continue. It has been curiously assumed that the 'appropriation' by the city council each year of an aggregate sum, specifically 'for the purpose of grounds, furniture, erection of new buildings, repairs and renting of buildings and support of schools,' constitutes an advanced concurrence in the expenditures deemed necessary by the board for repairs, and yet does not constitute a sufficient

The suggestion has been made further, that the board of education be allowed to determine, within the limits of the law, the amount of money\* to be appropriated for school purposes.<sup>(28)</sup> This is a power widely granted to similar bodies. Experience so far has not shown that this power is liable to abuse. The levying of taxes for school purposes is in the

concurrence in expenditures for the purchase of school sites and the erection of new buildings, so that it has been customary to proceed in reference to the council in the making of repairs, and to apply for concurrence to the council every time it was desired to purchase a school site or erect a school building. The bare statement of such a condition of things is enough to show its unreasonableness. If the 'appropriation' is a sufficient concurrence for repairs, it is likewise a sufficient concurrence for the purchase of school sites and the erection of new buildings; and if it is not a sufficient concurrence for the latter it is not for the former. There can be no middle ground. I do not understand that anybody dissents from this proposition, nor do I know that any of the municipal officers have any special interest in the matter. They are all satisfied with the existing order of things, which is always easier to continue than to change. But the board of education should feel an interest in doing its business correctly and as required by law. There has been a great deal of embarrassing delay in the council at various times in acting in one way or the other upon communications from the board respecting the purchase of school sites and the erection of new buildings, and I believe it would be well for the board hereafter to carry out the above mentioned assumption to its logical conclusion, and to proceed under the present appropriation in the purchase of school sites and the erection of school buildings without applying to the city council for any specific concurrence at all."

—*William G. Beale, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1890.*

The embarrassment and delay which has been the rule under the present plan of requiring the concurrence of the council in respect to sites and buildings, is somewhat forcibly indicated in the following extract from President Halle's report for 1898:

"Motley School (adjoining lots)—Recommended Nov. 18, 1896, and authorized by Council Dec. 13, 1897; North Oakley Avenue, near Potomac Avenue—Recommended Feb. 24, 1897, and authorized by Council Dec. 13, 1897; Froebel School (adjoining lots.)—Recommended March 24, 1897, and placed on file by Council May 16, 1898; Southeast corner Avenue N and 110th Street—Recommended Oct. 6, 1897, and authorized May 23, 1898; West 17th Street, near Loomis Street—Recommended by Board Oct. 20, 1897, and authorized March 23, 1898; Prairie and Forest Avenues—Recommended Nov. 3, 1897, not authorized to date."

(28) "The work of such a board will be best subserved by giving them virtual control of the finances, even to the point of levying school taxes. A maximum limit may be fixed by the legislative authority, but there should be perfect freedom as to the amount to be collected within that limit. The best laborer must be sure of his tools. Money is the most efficient tool in the hands of a most conscientious school board of education, and they must be sure of its constant readiness for service."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

"To require a board thus constituted to be a suppliant to the average city council, for the necessary appropriations to carry on the school, is a grievous wrong. You can rest assured that if for any reason the revenues of the city are curtailed and some department must suffer, it will be as a rule the school, as the ward statesmen of the council must keep their fences in repair in their own little kingdoms. I would have the school boards make the tax levy for carrying on the schools, and certify the same to the taxing authorities for collection and return direct to the boards, as the boards are unquestionably the better judges as to the requirements of the schools than the city government, whose members



hands of the board of education in St. Louis, Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Denver, and Indianapolis, and it is proposed by the new law in Massachusetts to give similar power to the school committee of Boston. In such cases, however, the school authorities have been directly elected by the people, and so are directly responsible to them; with a board of education appointed as here suggested, difficulties might arise from too lavish expenditure. The principle, it must be granted also, is opposed to municipal experience, which has in general necessitated placing all such questions, so far as the city is concerned, in the hands of one body.<sup>(29)</sup> On the other hand, as the present condition of school affairs in Chicago shows undue retrenchment in the matter of school

are in no sense familiar with the work. I would place the entire responsibility on the board, knowing full well that if the schools are not conducted upon an economical basis, the people, the source of all power, will dismiss them as unfaithful stewards, and select others more worthy."—*R. L. Yeager, President Kansas City School Board, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 974.*

"Even the determination of the sum to be levied for school purposes should not be left to the common council, which by legislation and by usage has come to represent and has become representative of interests not in harmony or sympathy with school administration. If there is a finance board or tax commission which receives estimates from all sources and finally determines the amount to be levied, it is not so objectionable that the school estimates should go with others to this board, for such a board may be assumed to be independent of all special interests and representative of the best sentiment of the whole city. But the only sound rule is that school administration shall be entirely independent of municipal business. The two do not rest upon the same foundation. The power which manages each proceeds from entirely different sources, and the object and purpose of each have nothing in common."—*Andrew S. Draper, in Educational Review, 1893.*

"To allow the board of education to levy its own taxes, while withholding the same right from the sewer commissioner, police, fire and park boards, is to assume that the school men are superior beings to their official brethren, and deserve special consideration. This would not be admitted. The way that this whole question is often avoided is to take the schools entirely out of municipal control. The charters of some of the big cities do not mention schools at all, or only briefly and incidentally, while the school boards are specially chartered with full powers of taxation. The powers of the western boards with respect to finances are usually much greater than those in the east. St. Louis, Denver and Minneapolis are types of cities where school boards enjoy the right to levy whatever tax they require without submitting their estimates to anybody."—*James C. Boykin, in Educational Review, March, 1897.*

(29) "The theory that there should be a balance wheel somewhere in the city government, to keep all its parts running smoothly and uniformly, is a sound one. The experience of allowing each municipal board to levy taxes for every purpose its members think necessary has always resulted disastrously, for the aggregate is sure to be excessive. The common council is logically the body which should act as the balance wheel in so adjusting the expenditures of the several branches of the city government as to bring them all within reasonable bounds; and from the standpoint of the student of city government in general, where the schools are distinctly municipal affairs, no valid objection can be urged to lodging the power of appropriation of funds in the council."—*James C. Boykin, in Educational Review, March, 1897.*

accommodations—a point to be discussed later—your commission thinks that the question of giving such power to the board of education is worthy of serious consideration.<sup>(30)</sup>

SECTION 8.—THAT PROVISION BE MADE IN THE LAW FOR THE REMOVAL OF MEMBERS OF THE BOARD, BUT ONLY FOR CAUSE AND UPON WRITTEN CHARGES.

The necessity of removing members of a board has not often arisen, but a number of cities have seen proper to provide for such a contingency.<sup>(31)</sup> As the appointment of members is put in the hands of the

(30) "The control of school finances by the city council is a very great evil. Common councils of American cities are almost invariably composed of inferior men, with a large number, if not a majority, of corrupt men. I never yet knew what might be called a good common council in any city. They are always political bodies with that intensity of political partisanship which belongs to the ward politician, and everything within their grasp is used for partisan advantage. To make it direct, in this city it is practically necessary to have the school board and the common council of the same political complexion in order to secure adequate appropriations; otherwise the party appropriating funds might be contributing to the glory and success of the party controlling the schools. It makes no difference which party is in power. Nothing is of less interest to the average common council than education, and nothing makes so convenient a political tool. If economy must be practiced, the schools are the first to suffer. If money is to be spent, it must be so spent that it shall redound to the advantage of the party in power. The common council should have absolutely no rights or powers regarding the administration of schools or the appropriation of funds. It is better to allow the school board, within the statutory limits, to determine the amount of funds to be expended."—*A City Superintendent*.

"The powers relating to the management of city schools are often vested in boards, the members of which are appointed by the mayor and confirmed by the city council or aldermen. In such cases the school board is dependent upon the legislative branch of the municipal government for appropriations from the treasury to pay the salaries of teachers and officers and to meet the current expenses of the schools. New buildings and building sites are in that case usually provided by the city government directly, but in some cases by the school board. The city council is more interested in municipal improvements and in questions of semi-political or partisan nature than in the schools, and is apt to stint the supply of the school fund at unseasonable times."—*William T. Harris, Superintendent's Report, St. Louis Board of Education, 1879*.

(31) "Any member of the board of education of a borough school board, or any inspector of common schools in the city of New York, may be removed by the mayor of said city upon proof either of official misconduct in office or negligence of official duties, or of conduct in any manner connected with his official duties, or otherwise, which tends to discredit his office or the member or inspector, but before such removal of said member or inspector, he shall receive due and timely notice in writing of the charges and a copy thereof, and shall

mayor, it seems well to give him the power of removal, if necessity should arise; only, however, after a due trial and a formal statement of the reasons for such action.

SECTION 9.—THAT A FORMAL TITLE BE GIVEN MEMBERS OF THE BOARD, AND THAT THE EXACT TIME AND THE CONDITIONS OF THEIR APPOINTMENT BE CLEARLY INDICATED IN THE SCHOOL LAW.

The school law of the state of Illinois, in the article specifically applying to Chicago, lacks clearness in regard to the time of appointment, the duration of the term, and the title of members of the board of education. In any future legislation bearing upon the city system, attention might well be given to these points.

be entitled to a hearing on like notice before the mayor, and to the assistance of counsel on said hearing."—*Removals by Mayor for Neglect or Misconduct, after Hearing.*—Section 1,087, *Charter of the City of New York*.



The Business Manage-  
ment of the Board of  
Education

ARTICLE II

Your Commission respectfully recommends, in regard to the business management of the Board of Education:

SECTION 1.—THAT A BUSINESS MANAGER BE APPOINTED AT A YEARLY SALARY NOT TO EXCEED \$10,000, UNDER A CONTRACT FOR A TERM OF SIX YEARS; PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY BE REMOVED ONLY FOR CAUSE UPON WRITTEN CHARGES, BY A VOTE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO-THIRDS OF THE ENTIRE BOARD;

SECTION 2.—THAT HE SHALL NOMINATE AND, SUBJECT TO THE PRIOR APPROVAL OF THE BOARD, APPOINT THE ARCHITECT OR ARCHITECTS OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS, AND ADVERTISE AND AWARD THE CONTRACTS FOR THE CONSTRUCTION AND REPAIR OF SUCH BUILDINGS EITHER WHOLLY OR IN PART, AND FOR THE PURCHASE OF ALL SUPPLIES REQUIRED FOR THE BOARD AND SCHOOLS, OR OFFICERS AND EMPLOYEES OF THE BOARD; PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY, WITHOUT SUCH PRIOR APPROVAL, EXPEND FOR REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES A SUM NOT TO EXCEED \$200 IN EACH CASE;

SECTION 3.—THAT HE SHALL EXERCISE A CAREFUL OVERSIGHT OVER THE CONSTRUCTION OF ALL SCHOOL BUILDINGS, AND OVER ALL REPAIRS ON SUCH BUILDINGS;

SECTION 4.—THAT HE SHALL HAVE THE APPOINTMENT, DIRECTION AND DISCHARGE, UNDER CIVIL SERVICE RULES, AND IN ACCORDANCE WITH A SCHEDULE OF SALARIES ESTABLISHED BY THE BOARD, OF THE JANITORS, ENGINEERS AND OTHER PERSONS WHOM HE SHALL REQUIRE TO ASSIST HIM IN THE BUSINESS AFFAIRS OF THE BOARD; PROVIDED, THAT ALL SUCH APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS AND DISMISSALS SHALL BE REPORTED TO THE BOARD AT ITS NEXT REGULAR MEETING, AND SHALL STAND AS FINAL UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF, NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO;

SECTION 5.—THAT HE SHALL PERFORM ALL OTHER EXECUTIVE DUTIES RELATING TO THE BUSINESS AFFAIRS OF THE BOARD, BUT NOT SUBJECT TO ITS PRIOR APPROVAL, AND REPORT SUCH ACTS, TOGETHER WITH A

STATEMENT OF ALL EXPENDITURES FOR REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES, NOT EXCEEDING THE SUM OF \$200 IN EACH CASE, AT THE NEXT REGULAR MEETING OF THE BOARD; SAID ACTS AND EXPENDITURES TO STAND AS FINAL UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF, NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER SUCH REPORT IS MADE THERETO;

SECTION 6.—THAT HE SHALL HAVE THE CHARGE AND CUSTODY OF THE SECURITIES OF THE BOARD AND UNDER CLOSE DIRECTION, ACT AS ITS FINANCIAL AGENT;

SECTION 7.—THAT, BEFORE ENTERING UPON HIS DUTIES, HE SHALL GIVE A BOND OF NOT LESS THAN \$150,000, RUNNING TO AND APPROVED BY THE BOARD, AND CONDITIONED UPON THE FAITHFUL PERFORMANCE OF THE DUTIES OF HIS OFFICE.

The administration of a school system in a small community is not a matter of great difficulty. The interest of the public in this important question, the comparative ease with which the people can discuss and determine measures relating to the schools, their intimate knowledge of the men proposed to represent them in the management of school affairs, and the facility with which any citizen may inform himself in regard even to the details of the work, all lead to a ready solution of this problem. With the growth of a city <sup>(1)</sup>, however, the conditions become much more

(1) "As cities increase in population, and even out of proportion to the advance in population, the volume of municipal business enlarges, the magnitude of the transactions becomes more and more appalling, the subjects presented more and more involved, the temptations become greater and dishonesty more and more difficult of detection. As it becomes more and more imperative to have strong men and honest men to manage the business of large cities, it also becomes, for obvious reasons, more and more difficult to secure them upon the basis of an unrestricted suffrage. It is therefore meet that the best thought of the country should be turned, as it is turned, to plans for the government of cities.

"And what is true of municipal business in great and growing cities is true in still larger degree of their school business. The proper education of the children is infinitely more important than even the management of the street, fire and police departments of such cities. And in view of the marked extent to which our people are congregating in cities, it is well for us to remember that if the public school system is to hold the confidence and esteem of the country, it must hold the confidence and esteem of the cities, and to do that it must bear fruits worthy of confidence and esteem."—*Andrew S. Draper, in Educational Review, June, 1883.*

"In our great city school systems there is little distinction between legislative and executive functions, no centralization of responsibility and accountability. Novices are toying with high powers of government and managing vast properties, before which the most experienced and

complicated and since a very large percentage of the population of the country is now massed in cities of considerable size <sup>(2)</sup>, the securing of a good school system is a difficult problem.<sup>(3)</sup> The evolution of school systems in large cities, has led, as your commission has already indicated, to a marked change in the methods of selecting boards of education.<sup>(4)</sup> This change in the constitution of the board involves also a different plan of organization and administration. The large membership of the board which has hitherto been common in cities, led inevitably to a system of committee management <sup>(5)</sup>, the evils of which have already been sug-

conservative stand in awe. There is but little appreciation of the difficulties of developing a competent, right-spirited, self-respecting force, and the temple is being profaned by money changers. The organization is so constituted that it resists the contributing citizen looking for live teaching for his children, more than the poor unfortunate who is in quest of a place, or the pillager who is looking for plunder."—*"The Crucial Test,"* by Andrew S. Draper.

(2) In 1840, 8.5 per cent of the total population of the United States lived in cities of more than 8,000. In 1890 there was in cities of this size not less than 29.4 per cent of the population.

(3) "Now I must exploit these troubles in the two most important directions before discussing the remedies. Your city is spending millions of dollars each year upon the schools. The wise and safe expenditure of this money so that it shall secure the ends which the people who give it have the right to demand places a tremendous responsibility somewhere. The business operations incident thereto are involved and innumerable. Integrity, experience, expertness and alertness are all imperative, or the money is filched and the ends for which it was raised are defeated. The city owns millions upon millions of real estate devoted to school purposes. It is putting in millions more each year. Some of us know how difficult it is to care for a small interest in real estate, where our own self-interest is sufficient to make us attend to it. How infinitely more involved is the problem of maintaining in good physical and healthful condition hundreds of buildings subject to the hard usage which falls upon school houses. Then there is the matter of selecting new sites and erecting new buildings. The first calls for ripe judgment as to the probable directions of the city's growth; the last calls for all the good qualities in the heavens above as well as upon the earth beneath to prevent fraud and to secure to the people what belongs to them. The whole business is encompassed by self-seekers. You might as well turn the banks of the city over to the ward primaries and expect to keep them out of the hands of receivers, or let political committees name the directors of the railroads and expect trains to run on time and dividends to be paid on quarter days, as to put all this vast business of the schools into inexperienced hands, chosen in a similar way, and expect it to be conservatively managed."—*"The Crucial Test,"* by Andrew S. Draper.

(4) See Article I, Section I.

(5) "It abolishes the vicious trustee or sub-committee government. That Brooklyn is permitted to retain it in a modified form is a loss to Brooklyn, but it will furnish a gigantic object lesson which cannot fail to be of great value. That there are wise, and good, and helpful boards of trustees and local committees is a truism. That the system itself is an incubus to the schools is evident to any candid observer."—*"Education in the Greater New York,"* by Frank A. Fitzpatrick, in *Educational Review*, May, 1897.

gested.<sup>(6)</sup> Just as the membership of many boards<sup>(7)</sup> increased to an absurd degree, so the number of committees appointed to manage their affairs has been in many instances extremely large. The numerous committees have led to a very cumbersome and unwieldy system of administration.<sup>(8)</sup> The arguments against a large board of education are even more valid against the number of committees, which naturally results from it. Your commission has no hesitation in recommending a small membership of the board and in stating its belief that three committees can perform more satisfactorily than at present the duties now devolving on not less than twenty-four. A committee on educational affairs, a committee on business affairs, and a committee on financial affairs can, we believe, easily assume all the work which cannot be immediately settled by the board as a whole <sup>(9)</sup>, and which may well be assigned to the immediate consideration of committees. It is evident, however, that no one of these committees, including at most four or five members, can acquaint itself with all the details of school administration which are included in the gen-

(6) See Article I, Section 4.

(7) "The present laws that relate to the school committee of Boston contain nothing especially remarkable, but their history is full of things which it would be well to avoid. The primary schools were managed prior to 1855 by a committee which had grown from thirty-six to one hundred and ninety. They filled their own vacancies and were generally a law unto themselves. At the same time there was a general school committee of twenty-four members, two elected by the people of each of the twelve wards, and when the primary school committee was abolished the general committee was increased to seventy-two, or six members for each ward.

"With the annexation of more territory to the city the school committee grew to one hundred and sixteen members. It was so unwieldy as to interfere with the proper prosecution of business, and in 1895 the number was cut down to twenty-four, elected from the city at large. They had formerly no authority to determine the location or character of the school houses, that power being exercised by the city council until 1875. Then the school committee was given a voice in the matter, but the division of authority was equally unsatisfactory in practice, but in 1889 the entire control of the erection of buildings was turned over to the school committee, though the money might fairly be appropriated by the council."—*Report of U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1896.*

(8) "At one time, in Cincinnati, the management of the school system was shared by *seventy-four* committees. This number was formerly surpassed in Chicago, when the list of committees included not less than *seventy-nine*."—"City School Systems," by John D. Philbrick.

(9) " \* \* \* The board should transact all its business, as far as possible, as a board. It is all right to appoint your committees, but, as far as practicable, I would have the entire board as a committee in all important matters. It has been my observation that most all the disturbance and mischief that boards have to meet comes through committee work. This is the open door through which walks the criticisms and insinuations and intimations that some baneful influence has been invoked. Is it not wisdom, to say nothing of policy, to avoid all possible criticism?"—R. L. Yeager, President, Board of Education, Kansas City, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 977.

eral scope of its work. Even in a small community, where, if ever, the conditions admit of such committee administration, it has seemed best in many instances to make the superintendent of the school system the executive officer in full charge of both educational and business functions and to intrust to him the working out of a policy, outlined only in general, by the school authorities.<sup>(10)</sup> This separation of legislative duties, preferable in a small town, becomes imperative in our large cities.<sup>(11)</sup> Here the board of education must differentiate<sup>(12)</sup> its functions and, to fulfill its duties adequately, must give over the executive work to competent and trusted officers.<sup>(13)</sup> Therefore we recommend:

(10) One city of considerable size (Decatur, Ill.) has been referred to in discussions of this question, in which, for twenty-five years, no building has been erected, and no teacher appointed, except on the direct recommendation of the superintendent.

(11) “\* \* \* On the business side, the board of education, by placing in the hands of a superintendent of supplies, a superintendent of buildings and a superintendent of schools, the manifold details arising in this department, escapes the worry, irritation and annoyance which a discussion over such trivial matters always brings to the members of the board. As a result the members of the board of education will have ample time to discuss great questions of school policy and lend valuable aid to the solution of many vexed questions relative to the schools.”—*“Education in the Greater New York,”* by Frank A. Fitzpatrick, in *Educational Review*, May, 1897.

(12) “In other words, we are to take the general course which experience leads all intelligent people to take concerning the administration of great enterprises, in order to justify the theories upon which they are acting, and make sure of the ends for which they are striving. We must do all business upon a business basis. We must departmentalize the work; build up the administrative organs on bed-rock principles; confer needed authority upon officials, give them positions of character and dignity, afford them security, direct their proceedings by law and punish them if they disregard the directions. There are men and women who will not scramble for these positions, but who would fill them capably and conscientiously, and they can be found. It is for the substantial sentiment of the city to tear down social, political and other kinds of fences, bring contributing citizens together, lay aside everything but the common good, lay plans which are more scientific and find representatives to carry them out.”—*“The Crucial Test,”* by Andrew S. Draper.

“The function of the board of education is legislative primarily, and secondarily it is administrative; and for the latter it should divide the work into separate departments, each with a responsible head.”—*“City School Administration,”* by Albert P. Marble, in *Educational Review*, September, 1894.

(13) “The report is correct in recommending that there be a clear distinction made between the legitimate duties of the board of education and those executive duties which experience shows that no board can efficiently or wisely discharge. The executive duties involved in a school administration should be intrusted to two independent officers—a business manager or director, and a superintendent of instruction—and the duties of these officers should not only be properly co-ordinated, but the authority and general duties of each should be clearly defined by state law, and not by the rules of the board of education.”—*E. E. White, N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1895, p. 390.



SECTION I.—THAT A BUSINESS MANAGER BE APPOINTED AT A YEARLY SALARY NOT TO EXCEED \$10,000, UNDER A CONTRACT FOR A TERM OF SIX YEARS; PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY BE REMOVED ONLY FOR CAUSE UPON WRITTEN CHARGES BY A VOTE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO-THIRDS OF THE ENTIRE BOARD.<sup>(14)</sup>

The duties of the business manager under the plan which your commission proposes, are so far reaching and so important, that nothing less than the highest business ability and integrity can insure their proper fulfillment.<sup>(15)</sup> In order to secure a man who may fairly be expected to manage satisfactorily the enormous business interests of the board of edu-

(14) "In this connection I take the liberty of proposing and advocating a measure contemplating a radical change in the policy of the business management of the affairs of this board. I believe that the history of this department will justify the judgment that the economic interests of this board have not been subserved, nor can they be promoted by our current methods of business. The conflicting phases of semi-responsibility in the direction of minor interests render it impossible to fasten accountability upon any one set of men. Definite responsibility and exacting accountability should ever be the underlying and governing principle of every organization to which is committed fiduciary trust. If our affairs were conducted on the plan or by the methods pursued in such private enterprises as great business houses, large banking corporations or extensive railroad directories—and why they are not I am at a loss to conceive—I feel sure that within an incredibly short period of time we should realize a marvelous and gratifying change for the better in the administration of the business affairs of this board. Division of labor is a prime principle of industrial economy, only when each department is made subservient to the interest of the whole of which it forms a part. Not the least noteworthy application of this principle is found in the employment of certain true and tried men, whose office it is to give directions to and hold in review the agencies necessary for the conduct of any large business interest. As there is a governing principle, so there is in all successful enterprises a governing power. A clear, well-balanced mind is seldom at conflict with itself; hence the wisdom of making selection of one responsible head of affairs, to whom may be committed the management of the same, and who is empowered to work out his own plans with an eye single to an accountability that is commensurate with his trusted powers. Could this board see its way clear to the adoption of such measures governing the management of its business, I humbly and confidently submit it would insure such a conservation of its interests and secure such an improvement in the conduct of its affairs as would carry conviction of the wisdom of such a provision to the most incredulous."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*

(15) "The business department should have charge of all the property interests of the system. It should make the contracts and see to their execution, appoint janitors and remove them, and be held responsible for the condition of the property. The head of this department must be a business man of good experience and well-known independence and probity, who is strongly sympathetic with the noble ends for which the public school stands."—*"The Crucial Test," by Andrew S. Draper.*

"The chief executive officer on the business side should be charged with the care of all property and with the duty of keeping it in suitable condition; he should provide all necessary furnishings and appliances; he should make all agreements and see that they are properly performed; he should appoint all assistants, janitors and workmen; he should do all that the law contemplates and

cation, it will be necessary to pay what may at first thought seem a large salary. But in consideration of the admitted need of such an officer, a need which has been repeatedly recognized by those who have been most intimately associated with the work of the board <sup>(16)</sup>, and of the possibilities which are opened under this plan for greater efficiency of service and a large saving in expense, by a more economical and business-like management <sup>(17)</sup>, your commission feels assured that the good judgment of the community will approve the policy of paying a large salary

all that the board authorizes concerning the business affairs of the school system, and when anything goes wrong he should answer for it.—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 110.

(16) "I find the business affairs of the board largely managed in detail by different departments, each separate and distinct, under the general control of some special committee, which recommends to the board such expenditure of money as they deem advisable, according to the knowledge they have or the wants of the schools; but the expenditure of this large appropriation as a whole is under the control of no one particular person, with no individual responsibility resting upon anyone. I know that the business affairs of the board are honestly and faithfully conducted, but can they be judiciously and economically conducted under such a system? I think not, nor can the best results be obtained from such methods.

"In my judgment, the proper administration of your affairs requires the appointment of some one person who could devote all his time to this work, and for which he should receive a salary commensurate with the responsibility. He should have all the power usually given the presidents of large corporations, have full charge and authority over all the business affairs of the board and all its business employes; the heads of the business departments should report directly to him in all matters pertaining to their departments; he should examine the value of school sites before purchasing, investigate all requests for improvements and for repairs of all school buildings, superintend the letting of all contracts, oversee all expenditures and audit all disbursements—in short, he should have full power to conduct the business affairs of the board upon the same principles and methods as are used in large corporations organized to make money. A man with such powers would be in touch with all the necessary needs of the schools and their relation to each other, as well as the resources of the board, and would also be in a position to advise the members so that they would act in an intelligent manner; and they would judiciously and economically expend and distribute the large sums of money intrusted to their care. Such action, I think, would often save to the city extravagant and useless expenditure, and to the individual members much time and perplexity."—*John McLaren, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1893.*

"\* \* \* It is admitted, though, that in our efforts to place safeguards around our business transactions, we have established a government by committee which must be modified materially. We have a series of committees disposing in many instances of petty details which should be left to competent employes."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1898.*

(17) "There is no good reason why the cities of New York and Philadelphia or Chicago should not save money in school expenses and at the same time see the physical condition of the property improve, the financial statement look healthier and the teaching advance in quality and tone, if they would make a school organization in accord with the principles which the world's experiences have shown to be imperative to the conduct of all good enterprises and the enforcement of the rights of the people who are interested in these enterprises."—*"The Crucial Test," by Andrew S. Draper.*

to this position.<sup>(18)</sup> Moreover, as the salary which can fairly be proposed for the business manager, will in any case be less than that which similar ability will command in other business enterprises, your commission believes that this position should be made in other ways attractive to the right man. The term of office should be sufficiently long to free the business manager from the uncertainties of frequent elections and to assure him a full opportunity both to demonstrate his abilities and to test fairly the business system which may commend itself to his judgment. Subject, therefore, to removal in case of incompetency or lack of integrity, he, as well as the other executive officers of the board, should be appointed for the term of six years suggested.

SECTION 2.—THAT HE SHALL NOMINATE AND, SUBJECT TO THE PRIOR APPROVAL OF THE BOARD, APPOINT THE ARCHITECT OR ARCHITECTS OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS, AND ADVERTISE AND AWARD CONTRACTS FOR THE CONSTRUCTION AND REPAIR OF SUCH BUILDINGS EITHER WHOLLY OR IN PART, AND FOR THE PURCHASE OF ALL SUPPLIES REQUIRED FOR THE BOARD AND SCHOOLS, OR OFFICERS AND EMPLOYES OF THE BOARD, PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY, WITHOUT SUCH PRIOR APPROVAL, EXPEND FOR REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES A SUM NOT TO EXCEED \$200 IN EACH CASE.

The construction of school buildings is one of the first duties devolving upon the board of education, and cannot in any way be delegated to others. To determine how many buildings are necessary for school purposes, where these should be located, what funds should be set aside for this purpose, are questions to be settled directly by the board, on the initiative of the

(18) "It is my belief that a competent man of affairs, with large executive powers, conversant with men and values, informed as to the mutual interests of all parties concerned in the financial transactions of the board, inflexible in demanding and dispensing justice in all matters of reciprocal interests, if chosen to act in the capacity of, let me suggest, a business director of all business affairs, subject always to review by the board, at a liberal salary, by the introduction of business methods into our affairs, so effect a saving in our expenditures as would compensate for his salary many times over and bring about a more rational method of procedure in all our business relations. From a merely financial point of view, from a point of view of a sensible regard for every economic administration of the interests of the board, it would seem that we ought to set the seal of our approval on this measure. Of course, such an officer should have privileges and powers commensurate with his responsibilities, and nothing should be exacted of him except an economical and business-like conduct of affairs. By such a provision I am fain to believe there would show up annually a large gain in our balance sheet, sufficient for the erection of several school buildings, and the members of the board would be left free to their legitimate duties in committee and board sessions to pass upon matters of legislation and a review of the work of employees."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*



superintendent and with the advice of the business manager. The great expense which is involved in securing school accommodations necessitates the utmost care on the part of the board, and in all the functions attributed in this section to the business manager, it is highly necessary that his action should be subject to its approval. But your commission believes that all these duties fall primarily within the scope of his office, and that they can be filled more satisfactorily by him in connection with the other work assigned to him, than they can be by a separate officer.<sup>(19)</sup>

The responsibility for making all repairs on school buildings follows logically the assignment of the construction of such buildings to the business manager. It has been customary in some cities to give the purchase of supplies to another employe.<sup>(20)</sup> Your commission doubts the advisability of entire differentiation of functions, at this point, but sees no reason why the business manager should not assign this duty to a responsible subordinate. We believe, that for purposes of economy, as well as of strict responsibility, the business manager should be required to make purchases and repairs by contract where possible<sup>(21)</sup>; provided, however, that he may in emergency cases spend a small sum as indicated above.

(19) "The commissioner of school buildings shall be appointed by the board of education for a term of four years, during which term his compensation shall not be reduced. He shall devote all his time to the duties of his office and shall be charged with the care of the public school buildings of such city, and with the responsibility for all the ventilation, warming, sanitary conditions and proper repair thereof. He shall prepare or cause to be prepared all specifications and drawings required, and shall superintend the construction and repair of all such buildings; shall make report each month to the board of education, showing in detail the cost of repairs and other work for the previous month on each building, embodying therein the amount of bills outstanding for the work ordered by him, and stating specifically the cases where work was done or ordered without public letting; shall superintend all the advertisements for bids and the letting of contracts; and shall, within the limits of appropriations theretofore made by the board of education for repairs, make all contracts for the repairs of school property, except where the cost of such repairs shall exceed the cost of fifty dollars. He shall give bond in such sum as may be fixed by the board of education, which shall not be less than ten thousand dollars, conditioned upon the faithful performance of the duties of his office."—*Charter St. Louis Board of Education, Section 8.*

(20) "The superintendent of school supplies shall take and subscribe before the secretary or the clerk of the board of education the oath prescribed by the constitution of this state, and shall give such security for the faithful performance of the duties of his office as the board of education may direct; and the department under his charge shall be subject to such rules and regulations as the board may establish."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,078.*

"It shall be the duty of the supply commissioner to take charge of the supplies, text-books, apparatus and all personal property of the board, not including furniture, and attend to the distribution of the same upon proper requisition from the schools or the various departments of the schools under the board."—*Rules St. Louis Board of Education, Rule 10, Section 1.*

(21) "The board of education shall have power to enact by-laws and resolutions for the government of the superintendent of supplies, which by-laws and

SECTION 3.—THAT THE BUSINESS MANAGER SHALL EXERCISE A CAREFUL OVERSIGHT OVER THE CONSTRUCTION OF ALL SCHOOL BUILDINGS, AND OVER ALL REPAIRS ON SUCH BUILDINGS.

The duties attributed here to the business manager are among those for which he is naturally responsible, but which, in common with others, may be assigned by permission of the board to a subordinate answerable to him for their proper fulfillment.

SECTION 4.—THAT THE BUSINESS MANAGER HAVE THE APPOINTMENT, DIRECTION AND DISCHARGE, UNDER CIVIL SERVICE RULES, AND IN ACCORDANCE WITH A SCHEDULE OF SALARIES ESTABLISHED BY THE BOARD, OF THE JANITORS, ENGINEERS AND OTHER PERSONS WHOM HE SHALL REQUIRE TO ASSIST HIM IN THE BUSINESS AFFAIRS OF THE BOARD; PROVIDED, THAT ALL SUCH APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS AND DISMISSALS SHALL BE REPORTED TO THE BOARD AT ITS NEXT REGULAR MEETING, AND SHALL STAND AS FINAL UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO.

In order to secure an efficient administration for the board, it is clear that the executive officer selected by its members should be given the appointment, direction and discharge of the employes in his department.<sup>(22)</sup>

resolutions shall provide that all supplies, as far as possible, shall be obtained by contract, for which proposals shall be advertised for a period of at least two weeks."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,076.*

(22) "Subject to the approval of the board of education as to number and salaries, the commissioner of school buildings shall have power to appoint as many engineers, janitors and other employes and agents as may be necessary for the proper performance of the duties of his department, for whom he shall be responsible and whom he shall have the power to remove; but the board of education may provide for competitive examination for the position of janitors and engineers; and when such provision shall have been made, the commissioner of school buildings may be required by the board to appoint janitors and engineers from the list obtained by such examination. He shall appoint such assistants and deputies as may be authorized by the board of education, whose compensation shall be fixed by the board; and one of said assistants shall be a trained engineer, qualified to design and construct the heating, ventilating and sanitary machinery and apparatus connected with the public school buildings. Such assistants and deputies shall be subject to removal by the commissioner of public buildings, who shall be responsible for the proper performance of their duties. The commissioner of school buildings may be removed by the board of education for cause, by a two-thirds vote of the entire board. He shall perform such other duties as may be required of him by the board."—*Charter St. Louis Board of Education, Section 9.*

"I believe that the application of civil service rules to the appointment and tenure of janitors and engineers is a wise provision and would serve to secure more efficient help and to reduce the proportion of ward workers and petty politicians appointed to such positions."—*A Chicago Principal.*

The danger imminent in this direction, of the appointment of unfit employes and the possibility of any connection of school affairs in this matter with the party politics of the city, may be avoided, we believe, by the establishment of civil service rules, applying especially to the school system of the city.<sup>(23)</sup> In the appointment of employes the business manager should be left as free as possible, but in order to avoid the temptations which come with absolute power, his action should be subject in this, as well as in other particulars, to revision by a majority of the board.

SECTION 5.—THAT THE BUSINESS MANAGER PERFORM ALL OTHER EXECUTIVE DUTIES RELATING TO THE BUSINESS AFFAIRS OF THE BOARD, BUT NOT SUBJECT TO ITS PRIOR APPROVAL, AND REPORT SUCH ACTS, TOGETHER WITH A STATEMENT OF ALL EXPENDITURES FOR REPAIRS AND SUPPLIES NOT EXCEEDING \$200 IN EACH CASE, AT THE NEXT REGULAR MEETING OF THE BOARD; SAID ACTS AND EXPENDITURES TO STAND AS FINAL, UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO;

SECTION 6.—THAT HE SHALL HAVE THE CHARGE AND CUSTODY OF THE SECURITIES OF THE BOARD, AND UNDER CLOSE DIRECTION, ACT AS ITS FINANCIAL AGENT;

SECTION 7.—THAT, BEFORE ENTERING UPON HIS DUTIES, HE SHALL GIVE A BOND OF NOT LESS THAN \$150,000, RUNNING TO AND APPROVED BY THE BOARD, AND CONDITIONED UPON THE FAITHFUL PERFORMANCE OF THE DUTIES OF HIS OFFICE.

Apart from the reservations already made, the business manager should be left free in the discharge of his duties, subject only to due report of his action in each case at the next regular meeting of the board.

To the business manager should be assigned also the execution of the financial policy of the board; under close supervision he should look after the investment and collect the interest of school funds, the rents of school lands and keep the accounts of all special funds under the control of the board.

In consideration of the importance of the interests in his charge, the business manager should be required, as is common in all such cases, to give a bond, for at least the sum indicated, to the board of education for the proper performance of his work.

(23) On the legal status of the board of education, see Appendix I.

## The System of School Supervision

### ARTICLE III

Your Commission respectfully recommends in regard to the system of school supervision: <sup>(1)</sup>

SECTION I.—(a) THAT THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS BE APPOINTED AT A YEARLY SALARY NOT TO EXCEED \$10,000, UNDER CONTRACT FOR A TERM OF SIX YEARS; PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY BE REMOVED BEFORE THE EXPIRATION OF HIS TERM ONLY FOR CAUSE ON WRITTEN CHARGES, BY A VOTE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO-THIRDS OF THE ENTIRE BOARD;

(b) THAT HE HAVE THE GENERAL CHARGE AND SUPERVISION OF THE TEACHERS AND TEACHING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS;

(c) THAT HE HAVE, AFTER CONSULTATION WITH THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS, THE SUPERVISORS AND THE PRINCIPALS, THE DETERMINATION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY, THE CHOICE OF TEXT-BOOKS AND APPARATUS USED IN TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS, WITHIN THE APPROPRIATION OF THE BOARD, AND SUBJECT TO DISAPPROVAL BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO;

(d) THAT HE APPOINT ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS, SUPERVISORS, TEACHERS, AND ATTENDANCE OFFICERS TO SUCH POSITIONS AS THE BOARD OF EDUCATION SHALL FROM TIME TO TIME AUTHORIZE, PROMOTE OR REDUCE TEACHERS AND FIX THEIR SALARIES UNDER THE SCHEDULE PROVIDED, AND DISMISS UNDER THE RULES ANY APPOINTEES NAMED IN THIS SECTION; PROVIDED, HOWEVER, THAT ALL SUCH APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, COMPENSATIONS, AND DISMISSALS SHALL

(1) "The same arguments, the same considerations for efficient management which apply to the business affairs of the board, demand a like provision for our educational interests. No great industry, no great institution, can be successfully directed except upon the executive plan; that is, by and through the employment of men and women of high grade, who are trained in the department of work submitted to their direction. It is a fallacy to consider the board of education both a legislative and executive body. In the very nature of things it cannot execute with efficiency."—*D. R. Cameron, ex-President Chicago Board of Education.*

BE REPORTED TO THE BOARD AND SHALL STAND AS FINAL, UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO; PROVIDED, FURTHER, THAT NONE OF THESE APPOINTMENTS BE MADE AND NO TEACHER BE PROMOTED UNTIL AFTER EXAMINATION AND APPROVAL BY AN EXAMINING BOARD HEREINAFTER PROVIDED FOR;

(e) THAT UPON THE APPLICATION OF ANY PERSON FOR A CERTIFICATE AS A TEACHER, AFTER THE EXAMINATION AND APPROVAL OF SAID APPLICANT BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, HE ISSUE TO THE APPLICANT A PROVISIONAL CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION FOR TWO YEARS, WHICH, AFTER PROOF OF SUCCESS FOR THIS PERIOD, SHALL BE MADE PERMANENT FOR CONTINUOUS SERVICE WITHOUT FURTHER EXAMINATION;

(f) THAT HE HAVE A SEAT AND THE PRIVILEGES OF THE FLOOR IN THE BOARD, BUT NO VOTE;

SECTION 2.—(a) THAT THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS BE PUT IN CHARGE OF NOT MORE THAN TWENTY-FIVE SCHOOLS EACH, AND THAT THE PRESENT NUMBER OF ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS BE INCREASED TO MEET THIS PROPORTION;

(b) THAT THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS SEVERALLY REPRESENT THE SUPERINTENDENT IN THE SCHOOLS WHICH MAY BE PLACED UNDER THEIR CHARGE, AND BE GIVEN DEFINED RIGHTS OF CONSULTATION IN REGARD TO THE APPOINTMENT, THE PROMOTION AND THE DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS IN THEIR SCHOOLS;

(c) THAT ONE ASSISTANT SERVE, WHEN CHOSEN FOR THIS PURPOSE BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, WITH OTHER PERSONS HEREINAFTER DESIGNATED, ON THE EXAMINING BOARD;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS HAVE THE GENERAL CHARGE OF THEIR SEVERAL SUBJECTS IN THE NORMAL, THE HIGH AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT AN ASSISTANT SUPERVISOR IN EACH SUBJECT BE APPOINTED IF NECESSARY, IN EACH DISTRICT OR CLOSELY CONNECTED GROUP OF DISTRICTS;

SECTION 4.—THAT THE PRINCIPAL BE GIVEN BY THE BOARD DEFINED PRIVILEGES OF CONSULTATION:

(a) IN THE APPOINTMENT, PROMOTION AND REMOVAL OF TEACHERS IN HIS OWN SCHOOL;

(b) IN THE CARRYING OUT WITHIN PROPER LIMITATIONS OF THE COURSE OF STUDY, AND

(c) IN THE CHOICE OF TEXT-BOOKS, AND

2. THAT HE BE GIVEN DEFINED RIGHTS:

(a) IN THE APPLICATION AND EXTENSION OF THE DEPARTMENTAL PLAN OF INSTRUCTION, SUBJECT TO THE GENERAL SUPERVISION OF THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS; AND

(b) IN THE SUPERVISION OF THE WORK OF THE JANITORS AND ENGINEERS;

SECTION 5.—THAT THE PRINCIPAL BE DIRECTED TO TEACH DURING NOT LESS THAN ONE-HALF OF EACH SCHOOL DAY;

SECTION 6.—THAT EXPERT INSPECTORS BE EMPLOYED BY THE BOARD FROM TIME TO TIME TO STUDY THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY AND MAKE REPORTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE BOARD.

Your commission has pointed out the weighty duties which devolve on the board of education in a large city in carrying on the business administration of its affairs<sup>(2)</sup>, and the varied difficulties which confront the members in this direction. We have recommended a consistent principle to be followed in managing the business affairs of the school system, and have in outline suggested a plan necessitating the utmost care in the revision of the school law applying to our city, and requiring ability and intelligence on the part of the members of the board to render it operative and effective in its application.

However, great as should be public concern for an efficient and economical plan of administering the business affairs of the board, the importance and the inherent difficulty of securing the desired results on the educational side, are much greater. This problem affects the interests of the people much more deeply and directly, and accordingly should arouse a far keener solicitude in the mind of every intelligent citizen.<sup>(3)</sup> Ill-chosen sites and unsanitary and badly constructed school buildings imperil the children in many of our American cities; but superintendents of instruction, who are not properly qualified for the duties of their office, or whose efficiency is lessened, and in some cases almost nullified, by the

(2) See Article II.

(3) "If it is difficult to manage the business of the schools, it is infinitely more so to secure life-giving instruction. It is strange that we need to remind ourselves now and then that the end for which the schools exist is not to gratify contractors or provide places, but to supply instruction. If anything has stood in the way of the fullest development of the schools, it has been the apparent readiness to accept anything that passed under the name of instruction; and the most gratifying sign in the educational heavens is the closer discrimination with which people are beginning to look upon what is done in the schools. And when the people begin to determine the differing values of instruction they come to the great question of the organization and supervision of the teaching force."—*"The Crucial Test,"* by Andrew S. Draper.



mischievous interference of the board of education—principals who are not awakened to their responsibilities, or are not competent to discharge these—affect the intelligence and happiness of the next generation much more seriously and offer a basis for far more severe criticism of the public schools. A janitor, selected as frequently happens in large cities for reasons other than his fitness for the position, will cause discomfort and sometimes real suffering to a thousand children by a neglect of his duties, arising not infrequently from a well justified belief in the strength of his political “pull.” A teacher, however, who has been appointed in spite of his incompetence, through the personal influence of a member of the board, acting for himself or his friends<sup>(4)</sup>, and who has been retained against the protest of the superintendent and his assistants, and of the principal, is a source of infinitely greater harm to the living interests of the city. Your commission, therefore, unhesitatingly affirms its belief in the supreme importance of establishing a system of supervision which will, as far as possible, correct these evils. Such a system, we maintain, must definitely and finally concentrate all authority in an officer who shall be weighted with responsibility, and above all, shall be independent of any personal or political manipulation and interference.

At the head of this system is the superintendent. The educational history of the country shows that a variety of methods have been followed in filling this office.<sup>(5)</sup> Experience, however, clearly points to the advisability of his selection by the board of education. His tenure of office

(4) “School boards lay larger claims to character, fitness and disinterestedness than aldermanic boards, and, as a rule, they are far more respectable and responsible. Occasionally they loot the treasury, but more commonly they do what is not technically so criminal, but what is in effect really worse. The circumstances press them hard. The wrongs they do or suffer to be done are not so deep, their friends and not themselves get the benefit, they fail to appreciate or deceive themselves about the harm that flows from their acts.”—*Andrew S. Draper, in Educational Review, June, 1893.*

(5) “The selection of the superintendent is another point upon which there are interesting differences of practice. He is usually elected by the school board, but in San Francisco, Buffalo and in some other cities he is a city officer, and is chosen at a popular election. A man must be a good politician as well as a good educator to succeed in obtaining office under these conditions, and the field of choice is necessarily narrowed to men well known and popular in the city. Such a thing as securing a superintendent who had made his reputation in another city would be out of the question. Philadelphia secured both McAlister and Brooks from other places; Cleveland, Ohio, brought Draper from New York and Jones from Indianapolis, and many others of the successful superintendents have found their widest field in places far distant from the scene of the beginning of their careers. But this style of election is not for San Francisco or Buffalo.”—*James C. Boykin, in Educational Review, March, 1897.*

should be for a term of years.<sup>(6)</sup> There is hardly a more striking fact in connection with school supervision in the United States than the usual shortness of the period during which a particular individual has performed the duties of such a position.<sup>(7)</sup> This has arisen partly from the difficulty of securing good men, since the qualifications which a superintendent should possess are not frequently found in one man. What a superintendent should be has occasionally been exemplified in the case of some fortunate city.<sup>(8)</sup> What he should not be, many cities have learned by experience, although in many cases his unfitness has not been made evident by any action of the board of education.<sup>(9)</sup> A superintendent of instruction has

(6) "To avoid frequently recurring contests which create discontent, I recommend unhesitatingly that the term of office of the superintendent be made four years."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1898.*

"The superintendent is properly the choice of the board of education, and should hold his office during good behavior, subject at all times to removal for cause, but never to the humility of an annual inspection and election. He represents in the work of instruction the prevalent sentiment of the business management, so far as their business has to do with teachers and pupils. For the time he stands in the place of the board, acting promptly, and conscious that whatever he does must pass under review and be approved by the authorities whom he represents. He stands pledged to pupils and to the public for the best possible use of all school appliances."—*J. L. Pickard, in Education, September, 1883.*

"Even this, revolutionary as it may seem, would prove ineffective unless the superintendent be protected, so long as he proves efficient, in the possession of his office. If he is to be turned out of office at the end of a two-year or a three-year term, because he has offended some local member of the board of education or has failed to gratify the wishes of some politicians, but little in the way of reform will be accomplished."—*W. H. Maxwell, Superintendent Brooklyn Public Schools, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1894, p. 321.*

(7) The average life of a superintendent in Michigan is two years, and men of intimate acquaintance with the schools of Illinois and Kansas say that the number of city superintendents who have served five years in one place can almost be counted on the fingers of one hand.

(8) "The typical superintendent is the true reformer. He is never contented with things as they are if he can discover a chance for improvement. He has the capacity to profit by the experience of others, and so spares no pains in making himself acquainted with the best things that have been thought and done touching the business in hand. He has the courage of his convictions and holds firmly to what he believes to be good. His aim is to produce better results with each passing day. But while doing his best to administer the system in the most judicious and effective manner, he is simultaneously carrying on another work; I mean the developing and perfecting of the system itself. In this sphere of his labor he incurs risks, for it brings him more or less in conflict with the views of members of the board; but this risk he accepts, trusting to time for his justification."—*"City School Systems," p. 58, by John D. Philbrick.*

(9) "The typical superintendent of the other class is one of a different character. He is considerably in earnest and displays no little activity and industry in supervising and directing the minor details of the business. His supreme ambition is to carry on the routine operations of the system with as little friction as possible, and with this end in view he virtually says to his board, 'I am here to obey your instructions. Tell me what to do and I will do it with alacrity



often proved acceptable to the members of a board, although he was not a man who in the long run could or would bring the schools of the city to the standard of usefulness which public opinion has a right to demand.

The qualifications<sup>(10)</sup> of a superintendent should be high, to meet the responsible duties which have been recognized as falling properly to his office.<sup>(11)</sup> He is the executive officer of the board in all its educational

and delight.' He means well, is fairly intelligent, and has a sincere desire to make himself useful; but he does not possess the qualities of a chief, of a leader, of an organizer. His forte lies in obeying rather than directing. He performs a good deal of useful drudgery under the direction of the committee. His reports are meagre in valuable information, either statistical or of any other description, about the schools. In place of pertinent facts and suggestions, he substitutes rather commonplace generalities, the correctness of which no one would think of calling in question, winding up with the assurance that, thanks to the wisdom of the board and faithfulness and ability of the teachers, the schools have made commendable progress and are in better condition than ever before. All are highly gratified to be thus assured and are highly content with their amiable and industrious superintendent."—"City School Systems," p. 59, by John D. Philbrick.

(10)"\* \* \* It is the function of supervision to breathe upon a school system the breath of life, to infuse into it a generous purpose and to direct it toward beneficent ends. This presupposes educational ideas and an expert knowledge of the necessary machinery of schools. It is not enough that a merely intelligent man, equipped only with empirical notions, should assume the responsible duties of supervision. Intelligence and executive ability are forceful qualities everywhere, but they alone do not equip the physician or the lawyer; neither do they equip the educator. To the necessary basis of common sense must be superadded the science or philosophy of education. The educator must be deeply and fruitfully read in the literature and philosophy of his profession."—John Kennedy, in *Educational Review*, May, 1891.

"He should be a graduate of a college or higher institution of learning; he should be thoroughly versed in the science of pedagogy and sanitation; he should have large experience in practical teaching, and he should possess high moral character, broad scholarship and superior executive ability."—Albert P. Marble, in *Educational Review*, September, 1894.

(11) "A school superintendent, by virtue of his position, has the *oversight* and general management of several schools, *with the power of direction*. He is an *examiner*, that he may inquire into and determine all matters pertaining to qualifications of teachers and pupils. He is an *inspector*, that he may make a careful survey to ascertain the quality of the teaching, the character of the management, and to direct whatever may be wrong in matter or method and to point out the means of correction. He is a *supervisor*, that he may oversee carefully, advise wisely and organize and direct intelligently. A real superintendent must be more than a teacher, more, even, than a merely skilled teacher. He must have made himself familiar with the best methods of teaching, with their tendencies and their results. He must be able to determine from the processes employed by the teacher what will be their effect on the pupil. He must possess deep and broad views of education in all its relations to the mind of the child and of the man. He must be able to distinguish a *plan of teaching* from a system, a *method of instruction* from a principle of education, and to organize and adjust the school work in all its parts, so as to secure a proper completeness in the system."—N. A. Calkins, in *Education*, May, 1882.

"The superintendent's office must not only inspect; it must lead. It must be considerate and sympathetic, helpful and inspiring. It must have authority

functions; not in the sense of a mere clerk or subordinate chosen to carry out details of work fixed for him by the members<sup>(12)</sup>, but rather as a cabinet officer or minister, to formulate and put in operation the educational policy of the board, and to assist the latter in their efforts to educate, interpret and make effective the desires of the people in regard to their schools.<sup>(13)</sup> On him should definitely rest the responsibility for the edu-

and it must act justly. Appointments and promotions and dismissals must be made with a clear head, a kind heart and a strong hand, without fear or favor, but with a determination to prevent all bad teaching and lift the whole force to the highest plane possible. It is truly surprising how the common sentiment of a teaching force fixes the status of each of its own members, and how surely that sentiment knows whether the acts of officials spring from merit or from influence. In one case the force will be without energy, self-confidence, steadiness or public respect. In the other case it will be characterized by fraternal respect and mutual regard, and it will show power and versatility which will uplift the life and shape the character of the city."—*"The Crucial Test,"* by Andrew S. Draper.

(12) "A school board's responsibility to the people and its obligations to the children of the people require that it take the judgment of its professional paid executive and adviser on all questions relating to the strictly educational affairs of the school. Otherwise the term superintendent as applied to him becomes a misnomer. His function is reduced to that of a clerk or messenger. His influence as an inspirer and a director of the various school agencies is minimized to mere nothingness. Still more to be deplored, what has promised to become an honorable and a necessary profession in the economy of popular education is deprived of its dignity and its influence."—William S. Mack, *N. E. A. Proceedings*, 1896, p. 984.

(13) \* \* \* The superintendent ought to be the educational adviser of the board, and his counsel ought to command the same respect on their part as that of a city solicitor on a question of law, or that of the city physician on a question of sanitation or public health. He ought to be held strictly responsible for his advice, just as they are, and for the action of the board based on it. He and not the school board ought to be held responsible by the public for the course of study and for the methods of teaching in the schools. If his advice and judgment are found to be untrustworthy, the school board, instead of retaining him and making him simply their clerk and agent, and assuming the responsibility themselves which properly belongs to him as an expert, ought to dismiss him and secure a person whose judgment they can trust.

"The superintendent ought also to make it his duty to fashion and shape the educational thought of the community. This he can do through public addresses, through private conferences with thoughtful citizens, and through the daily papers. He ought to make the schools known and popular in the community. In this way he can create the public sentiment which he needs to sustain him in every step he takes in the direction of improving the schools. It is needless to add that in order to do this successfully, he must be a scholar and must in some measure possess the ability of stating clearly and convincingly his own convictions to others."—Thomas M. Balliet, in *Educational Review*, Dec. 1891.

\* \* \* Finally, the first-class superintendent is a sort of pilot for the whole system, and must watch the rocks and breakers, and winds and clouds, and look often from them to the eternal stars to ascertain the drift of his course. The educational journals give him the trend of other systems, the daily newspapers show him the trend of public opinion far and near. He must direct his own labors and the labors of all his teachers toward making the school strong in the community. First, they must do good work; and secondly, they must make their community feel that it is good work and appreciate it. To neglect public opinion

cational system, and to him should be given a very large measure of power.<sup>(14)</sup> If he is to be hampered by specific mandates of the board<sup>(15)</sup> concerning the choice and assignment of teachers<sup>(16)</sup>, the selection of

in a representative form of government is to rebel against it and court defeat and discomfiture. We must not do anything except what we conscientiously believe to be right. But it is our duty to show to our clients, the people, the grounds of our conviction of our work.

"The efficient superintendent, therefore, sets into working order three educative influences to support the one great work of education in the school system: namely, an educative influence in wise measures and correct insight, for the members of the school board; second, an educative influence resulting in insight into methods and a growth in personal self-control, and besides these, a culture in literature, in art and in science, for the teachers; thirdly, for the community, an enlightened public opinion which knows what the schools are actually doing and can intelligently explain merits and defects and tell what changes are desired for onward progress."—*William T. Harris, in Educational Review, Feb., 1892.*

(14) "The department of instruction should be headed by a superintendent who is an expert in pedagogical science and in administration. He should have absolute power of appointment, assignment to position and removal of teachers, and sufficient assistance to have full and constant knowledge of what is being done in every school room in the city. Whether the law provides for it or not, he and his assistants will act as a board. This board will not be a body dangerous to the liberties of a free people. There will not be one chance of their doing injustice to a teacher to a hundred chances that they will leave undone disagreeable things which should be done in the interest of better teaching."—*"The Crucial Test," by Andrew L. Draper.*

"The danger of inconsiderate or improper action by one vested by such power is of course possible, but is remote. Regardless of the legal power with which he may be vested, he is in fact and in law a part of a large system. He must act through others and in the presence of multitudes. There is great publicity about all that he does. When a single officer carries such responsibility he is at the focus of all eyes. There are the strongest incentives to right action. Without discovery, at least by many persons, he cannot act wrongfully. If he is required to act under and pursuant to a plan, the details of which have been announced, and of which we will speak in a moment, a wrongful act will be known to the world, and he must bear the responsibility for it, and the danger of maladministration is almost eliminated."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 105.*

(15) "So long as the law provides that the board of education shall exercise the powers which in every other part of the state educational work are vested in a superintendent of schools elected for a term of years, the efficiency and the effectiveness of the administration of the duties of the superintendent's office will be determined entirely by the sentiments governing the majority of the board of education. As frequent changes occur in the board of education there will be varying standards of influences that will be brought to bear upon the superintendent, modifying his actions."—*A. G. Lane, Assistant Superintendent Chicago Public Schools.*

(16) "\* \* \* This power to appoint, to discharge, and to transfer teachers involves a great responsibility. Under ordinary conditions it would seem to be a menace to the stability of any officer and even of the office itself. But the efficiency and success of the whole system depend upon the right exercise of this power. The appointment of teachers must rest somewhere, and the responsibility should be definite. The power should be placed in the hands of the superintendent and surrounded with such safeguards as will prevent its abuse and protect the officer who exercises it, so long as he acts justly, wisely and accord-

text-books<sup>(17)</sup>, the arranging or re-arranging of the course of study<sup>(18)</sup>, he will necessarily fail to obtain the full measure of success otherwise possible, and the blame should fall where it rarely does, namely, on the board

ing to rule. The aim is to secure the very best teachers available and to place them where their best work may be done. If appointments are made by the board of education there will be as many standards as there are members; and as each member does only part of the work, he cannot take into account the whole field. Moreover, each member would be subject to personal solicitation from the friends of anxious candidates, as disagreeable as it is difficult to resist. The superintendent may relieve himself from this dangerous solicitation by requiring all candidates to appear before the board of examiners, who have no voice in the appointment, and take rank according to merit before there is any vacancy to fill—this rank including both scholarship and teaching ability and adaptability for certain kinds of work. From this list, which is open to the inspection of the board, he may then select the best for the vacant positions.”—*Albert P. Marble, in Educational Review, Sept., 1894.*

“Where teachers are appointed by school boards or committees or members thereof, or by ward or district trustees, its accomplishment, *i. e.*, the securing of a force of capable teachers, is impossible. If superintendents are only allowed to nominate, and nominations are to be confirmed by a board or committee, other elements than the fitness of the candidate will of necessity be taken into consideration. If a superintendent cannot dismiss teachers or change them about as exigencies require and experience suggest without being obliged to advise with and secure the approval of boards or members who are looking for votes, or who are anxious to please friends and who have no appreciation of the importance and delicacy of the questions involved, he will not do it at all.”—*Andrew S. Draper, in Educational Review, June, 1893.*

“In December, 1895, the committee on retrenchment and reform submitted in its report the recommendation to the effect that with the superintendent should rest the power of nominating all persons for the educational department, which recommendation was unanimously approved by the board. Now, if the provisions of this recommendation were accepted and carried out in good faith by the several members of the board, I make no question that the efficiency of the schools would in the near future be greatly enhanced and the charges of inefficiency be soon withdrawn. I reiterate my solemn conviction that, if you would have better equipped and more thoroughly trained teachers, and of course better schools, you must submit the question of teachers and their general direction to the superintendent and his assistants, and hold them responsible for one thing—good schools. To appoint an expert executive officer and then withhold from him the free and untrammelled administration of his official function is wholly absurd and insensate.”—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*

(17) “Essentially the same thing might have been said about text-books, in comparing the qualifications of superintendent and board, and a consideration of this question comes within the scope of the article from which we have quoted. There is no more unnecessarily vexing question to be considered by a board of education than this—unnecessarily vexing, because if relegated to the professional province of the superintendent and his assistants where it properly belongs, the board would be required to pass only upon the advisability of a change or adoption in view of the possible expense incident thereto, which, in fairness, we must admit, is all that it is qualified to do. The merit of a particular text-book and its superiority over any other presented for its consideration, the educational advantages to be derived by its adoption, and its adaptability for a definite purpose, are questions which only an expert can determine, and if left to him, and it is so understood, the board and its committee will escape untold annoyance; publishers and agents will find their business greatly

of education itself. His relation to the board, therefore, should be defined<sup>(19)</sup> and his duties and powers clearly indicated with necessary limitations. As long as he possesses the confidence of the board and is retained

simplified, and we believe elevated, by having to deal with professional people; and, what is of greater importance, the schools will be better served."—*William S. Mack, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 986.*

(18) "This supervisory function should be the perfection of the course of study and the selection of teaching and appliances, as well as the improvement of methods of instruction and discipline."—*E. E. White, in American School Board Journal, Feb., 1898.*

"The sober common sense of the people extending over a considerable period of time may be a good general guide to what should be taught in the school, since the schools must be kept in touch with the people, but there are many questions as to choice of particular studies, and adjusting the studies to one another in the course that the people can never settle. The order in which the several studies shall appear, the amount of work that shall be done in each study, and even the choice of studies can never be settled by a *plebiscite*. Nor can the average board of education, although its voice should be regarded as expressing in a more clarified form the popular mind and will, settle the questions. Especially are both the plebiscite and the vote of the board utterly hopeless when parallel courses are to be adjusted in high schools. The course of program of study calls for expert knowledge and experience, and this need the superintendent must meet. Questions relating to studies promise to be more troublesome in the future than in the past; the pressure upon the course of study is all the while increasing; and we may fairly expect therefore that the superintendent will be more prominent in settling these questions than he has been.

"It will be unprofitable to mince words about this all-important matter. If the course of study for the public schools of a great city is to be determined by laymen, it will not be suited to the needs of a community. If teachers are to be appointed by boards or committees, the members of which are particularly sensitive to the desires of the people who have votes or influence, looseness of action is inevitable and unworthy considerations will frequently prevail. If the action of a board or committee be conditioned upon the recommendation of a superintendent, the plan will not suffice. No one person is stronger than the system of which he is a part. Such a plan results in contests between the board and superintendent, and such a contest is obviously an unequal one. There is little doubt of the outcome. In recommending for the appointment of teachers, the personal wishes of members of the board in particular cases will have to be acquiesced in. If a teacher, no matter how unfit, cannot be dropped from the list without the approval of a board or committee after they have heard from her friends and sympathizers, she will remain indefinitely in the service. This means a low tone in the teaching force and desolation in the work of the schools. If the superintendent accepts the situation, he becomes less and less capable of developing a professional teaching service. If he refuses to accept it, he is very likely to meet humiliation. Dismissal is inevitable, unless he is strong enough to make himself secure by doing the right thing and going direct to the people and winning their approval. The superintendent of instruction should be charged with no duty save the supervision of the instruction, but should be charged with the responsibility of making that professional and scientific, and should be given the position and authority to accomplish that end."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 106.*

(19) "\* \* \* *The Superintendent and the School Committee:* The superintendent is an employe of the school committee, and hence in some sense their servant; but he is employed as an expert, just as a physician is, and in the range of work in which he is so employed he is independent of dictation. As an agent of the school committee he does many things merely as an executive officer,





as superintendent, he should be left unrestricted and untrammelled in his efforts to establish and administer the schools along the lines of a sound educational policy.<sup>(20)</sup> Accordingly we recommend:

SECTION I.—(a) THAT THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS BE APPOINTED AT A YEARLY SALARY NOT TO EXCEED \$10,000, UNDER A CONTRACT FOR A TERM OF SIX YEARS; PROVIDED, THAT HE MAY BE REMOVED BEFORE THE EXPIRATION OF HIS TERM ONLY FOR CAUSE ON WRITTEN CHARGES, BY A VOTE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO-THIRDS OF THE ENTIRE BOARD;

A superintendent of schools for the city of Chicago possessing the qualifications already indicated and fulfilling the important duties hereafter assigned to him, cannot be secured, we believe, for a much smaller salary than the one here mentioned, and the right man will not be induced to

and as to these things, he is a man under authority. As an expert, employed because he knows better than others about school management and methods, and especially in the instruction of the teachers in the principles and methods of teaching and of discipline, he is above the control of his employers, as fully as a physician is in the treatment of an invalid."—*Horace S. Tarbell, in Educational Review, Jan., 1892.*

(20) "An examination and comparison of school systems will confirm the reasonableness of our contention that the established laws of business cannot be violated with impunity in the management of the professional details of our schools. This was the observation of Dr. Rice in the larger cities, as shown by the *Forum* articles a few months ago, and it is just as true of the smaller places. Wherever the *esprit de corps* of the teaching force is marked, wherever the professional spirit leavens all the work, wherever the best methods of teaching and of government find their application and fullest expression, wherever there is a purposeful, a sympathetic and a loyal co-operation of all the educational forces, there you are quite likely to find a trained superintendent with conviction and with courage, who possesses the confidence of his board and who is accorded the right of final judgment with attendant responsibility, in all matters coming within its special province. Wherever a different notion of the board's responsibility to the people and its relation to the superintendent prevails, wherever a different policy governs, there are almost invariably to be found the various evils of which the critics of our public school system justly complain—favoritism and politics determining the appointment of teachers, the retention of poor and mediocre teachers, who possess neither sympathy nor professional spirit, lack of adequate appliances, lack of organic unity in plan and purpose, and much more that is inevitable in the absence of a correlating and vivifying principle."—*William S. Mack, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1896, p. 984.*

"The superintendent should be a statutory officer with statutory rights, duties and limitations. He should be allowed to choose his associates."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, on "City Schools."*

"Moreover, we must consider the alternative. It is not in doubt. All who have any contact with the subject are familiar with it. It is administration by boards or committees, the members of which are not competent to manage professional matters and develop an expert teaching force. Yet they assume, and in most cases honestly, the knowledge of the most experienced. They override and degrade a superintendent, when they have the power to do so, until he

undertake this work, even on these terms, if he is to be subject to yearly election and the consequent danger that his exercise of the powers of his office may lead to his sudden and perhaps ill-considered retirement before a proper test of his usefulness can be made.<sup>(21)</sup> Nevertheless, as there is always a danger that a board of education may fail in its efforts to secure a competent executive, it has seemed wise in this case, as in that of the business manager<sup>(22)</sup>, to provide for his removal if a large majority of the board so decrees.

(b) THAT HE HAVE THE GENERAL CHARGE AND SUPERVISION OF THE TEACHERS AND TEACHING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS;

If the superintendent is to be responsible for the educational side of the school system, he will naturally decide all questions that concern the teachers and the teaching in the schools, within limitations which should be fixed by the state law in general and by the rules of the board of education in particular.<sup>(23)</sup>

becomes their mere factotum. For the sake of harmony and the continuance of his position he concedes, surrenders and acquiesces to their acts, while the continually increasing teaching force becomes weaker and the work poorer and poorer. If he refuses to do this, they precipitate an open rupture and turn him out of his position. Then they cloud the issue and shift the responsibility from one to the other. There are exceptions, of course, but they do not change the rule."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 105.

(21) "Experience always shows that the pedagogic function should be committed to a superintendent of schools; and his duties should be defined by state law, and his tenure of office should be made sufficiently long and secure to afford him needed freedom in the discharge of his duties."—*E. E. White, in American School Board Journal, Feb., 1898*.

"The term of the superintendent of instruction should be from five to ten years, and until a successor is appointed. In our judgment it should be determinate so that there may be a time of public examination, but it should be sufficiently long to enable one to lay foundations and show results without being carried under by the prejudices which always follow the first operation of efficient or drastic plans. The salary should be fixed by law and not changed in the middle of a term except by law."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 107.

(22) See Article I, Section 1.

(23) "The superintendent should be the court of last resort to settle different opinions regarding promotion of pupils, and differences of opinion between principals and teachers, to determine all disputes regarding interpretation of the course of study, and to decide in all cases when difficulties arise regarding admission of pupils to schools or the transfer of pupils from one school to another."—*W. H. Maxwell, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1894*, p. 316.

"I like especially the idea of giving to the superintendent authority in many matters, which is final unless it is negatived by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board of education. This is substantially the plan which has been adopted in Columbia University for giving to the educators the initiative in all educational matters, the trustees simply reserving to themselves the right of vetoing in case of need. It is much better than to demand of the educators that they shall positively convince a body of laymen of the propriety of any step before it can be taken. I am confident that it will work as well in a public school

(c) THAT HE HAVE, AFTER CONSULTATION WITH THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS, THE SUPERVISORS AND THE PRINCIPALS, THE DETERMINATION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY, THE CHOICE OF TEXT BOOKS AND APPARATUS USED IN TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS, WITHIN THE APPROPRIATION OF THE BOARD, AND SUBJECT TO DISAPPROVAL BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERE TO;

The experience and opinion of educational experts are practically unanimous in assigning to the superintendent the arrangement of the course of study<sup>(24)</sup>, indicated in general outline by the rules of the board of education and by its appropriation for salaries and equipment. What should be taught in the public schools is a matter for the people themselves and for their chosen representatives in the board of education to determine. How the subjects should be arranged in the course of study, in what order and in what proportion instruction should be given in each, what methods should be employed, and what text-books<sup>(25)</sup> and apparatus should be

system as it has worked with us, and that it will do much to further the educational interests of any city that will adopt it."—*Seth Low, President Columbia University.*

"I note with special pleasure the freedom given to the superintendent to carry out his ideas of an educational system and the effort to give him both power and responsibility. The school system should not be a mere automatic machine. It should have some color and character. It should offer opportunity for a great teacher to work out a great idea. If the school system does not offer play for ability in this line, it will not secure the services of able men. A part of the freedom of an able superintendent will extend to the principals under his direction, for one of the most important qualities of a good superintendent is the ability to recognize originality in others."—*David Starr Jordan, President Leland Stanford University.*

(24) "The course of study and the text-books belong to the educational feature of the schools, and this should be in the hands of experts. The experts are the superintendent and his assistants and the principals. These with such counsel and advice as they may seek from the teachers, should fix the course of study and decide what text-books are best, in following that course. On these questions the superintendent should have the veto power, and the decision of these experts should be approved by the board. If the board do not approve, they should not have the power to substitute; such a course would confuse the general result. The experts must try another recommendation in that case."—*Albert P. Marble, in Educational Review, Jan., 1894.*

(25) "Every argument that can be adduced showing that the superintendent, guided by the popular intelligence and advised by his board and corps of teachers, should make the course of study, tends with equal force to show that, with the same limitations he should also choose the text-books; and with even greater force, because the text-books are the course of study in a very much more definite and practical sense than the course so-called. The course is but a vague outline; the text-books are minute and definite."—*B. A. Hinsdale, in Educational Review, Jan., 1894.*



procured for the schools within the necessary limitations of expense, are questions which should be determined by the officers of supervision, and should come before the board only on their initiative and recommendation.

(d) THAT HE APPOINT ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS, SUPERVISORS, TEACHERS, AND ATTENDANCE OFFICERS TO SUCH POSITIONS AS THE BOARD OF EDUCATION SHALL FROM TIME TO TIME AUTHORIZE, PROMOTE OR REDUCE TEACHERS AND FIX THEIR SALARIES UNDER THE SCHEDULE PROVIDED, AND DISMISS UNDER THE RULES ANY APPOINTEES NAMED IN THIS SECTION; PROVIDED, HOWEVER, THAT ALL SUCH APPOINTMENTS, PROMOTIONS, COMPENSATIONS, AND DISMISSALS BE REPORTED TO THE BOARD, AND SHALL STAND AS FINAL, UNLESS DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS THEREOF NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERE-TO; PROVIDED, FURTHER, THAT NONE OF THESE APPOINTMENTS BE MADE AND NO TEACHER BE PROMOTED UNTIL AFTER EXAMINATION AND APPROVAL BY AN EXAMINING BOARD HEREINAFTER PROVIDED FOR;

On this point, again, those most competent to decide by reason of their long connection with educational systems, either as members<sup>(26)</sup> of a board

(26) "Especially should the educational department be left free from non-professional interference and restriction, and the legal power of appointment and removal of teachers, in the largest measure consonant with the right of review by the board, be cheerfully committed to the superintendent of schools and his assistants. It scarcely needs an argument to convince any member of this board that these executive officers, by virtue of their outlook over the educational field, their knowledge of school affairs at home and abroad, their acquaintance with the trend and scope of educational thought, their familiar association with questions pertaining to school management and discipline, their experience with school life, their trained judgments as to professional merits in teaching, and their professional pride, all unite to justify the commission to their hands, unrestricted by individual members of the board, or by non-professional parties, the selection, appointment, assignment and transfer of teachers, the removal of incompetents and the promotion of teachers to fill vacancies occurring in the more important positions. Else why engage such a staff of officers? In fact, there is no justification for the appointment of a superintendent and assistants except upon the knowledge that to others more competent than the board or its membership must be committed the administration of the interests that are purely educational."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*

"For I maintain this to be true, that no board of education, however wise and prudent, however jealous and zealous for the good name of its schools, can in the nature of things hope to act for the highest efficiency of the schools upon their own motion; especially in the matter of the selection of teachers. The principle of favoritism, whether political or otherwise, should never be permitted to enter as a factor in a matter of such extreme importance. Merit and merit alone should govern in the choice of these men and women to whom are committed the nearest and dearest interests of society. Not the school for a would-be teacher, but the teacher for the school. Schools are not to be selected for the teachers, but the teachers for the schools. This great trust I am compelled to believe should be committed to the superintendent and his associates, for by education, by training,

of education, superintendents of instruction <sup>(27)</sup>, or teachers in the schools<sup>(28)</sup>, are largely agreed. If the superintendent is to be actually responsible for the municipal system of instruction, he must be given the selection, appointment, promotion and removal of his subordinates<sup>(29)</sup>, not

by experience, by their touch with educational affairs throughout the land, and by their sense of responsibility to the board of education, which reserves to itself the right of final judgment in all matters, they are the best equipped for this great duty. We may not hope to witness desired success on the educational side of our school system till the superintendent's office is clothed with the power of choice and direction."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1895.*

(27) "Second, I recommend that all assignments and transfers shall be placed in the hands of the superintendent and his assistants. No permanent assignment, however, shall be made to any school until the teacher has demonstrated her ability to succeed and the district superintendent and the principal of the school have reported favorably upon her work. No teacher shall be appointed to any position without the proper certificate for such position, nor shall any teacher be advanced to any position higher than that for which she has been examined and for which she holds a certificate."—*A. G. Lane, Superintendent, Chicago Public Schools, 1898.*

"I should say that the one essential element in the building up of a school system is the selection of one competent and thoroughly trained superintendent, in whose hands solely should be left the appointment of his teachers, being himself held strictly responsible for the results of his decisions."—*David Starr Jordan, President, Leland Stanford University.*

(28) "We recommend that the appointment, transfer of all teachers and principals be placed in the hands of a board of superintendents, for the following reasons: (a) The superintendents and principals are the best qualified to judge of the merits of the teachers, because they are in a position where they can see the work of the teachers as no one else can. Others may know the teachers as men or women, but know little or nothing of them as teachers. (b) It would relieve the members of the board of education of an annoyance which now must be almost intolerable. (c) It would lead those aspiring to become teachers to greater exertions in their preparation since their permanent employment would depend entirely on their success as teachers, and their fitness for the work. (d) It would place the responsibility for the instruction and management of our schools upon the superintendent, where it rightfully belongs."—*The George Howland Club, Chicago.*

"Voted, that we recommend that the appointment of teachers be exclusively in the hands of the superintendents; and that before a teacher is permanently elected to a position in a high school he be required to serve eight months on probation, at the close of which period the principal shall report to the superintendent on the efficiency of such teacher."—*Proceedings of Meeting, Chicago High School Principals, March 2, 1898.*

(29) "It is plain, that while in constant correspondence with the school authorities, he should have a controlling voice in the selection of his teachers. If the superintendent be a man of good common sense, of a thorough acquaintance

merely because he is responsible for their ability and faithfulness, but also because he should be the person most competent in the last resort to decide these matters.<sup>(30)</sup> In fulfilling these functions he is naturally restricted, first by the provision that renders him subject to overruling by the members of the board, and, second, by the requirement that in his choice and assignment of a teacher or principal to any particular position, he should at least consult the immediate superior. In addition, it is the opinion of your commission that since the compulsory school attendance law is closely related with other matters of school management, the enforcement of this law should be placed by the board directly in the hands of the superintendent.<sup>(31)</sup>

with the work he undertakes, and of high integrity—and no other should ever be brought into such a work—he is fit to act untrammelled.”—*J. L. Pickard, in Education,* September, 1893.

<sup>(30)</sup> “We now come to the subject of paramount importance in making a plan for the school government in a great city, namely, the character of the teaching force and the quality of the instruction. A city school system may be able to stand some abuses on the business side of its administration and continue to perform its functions with measurable success, but wrongs against the instruction must, in a little time, prove fatal. The strongest language is none too strong here. The safety of the republic, the security of American citizenship, are at stake. Government by the people has no more dangerous pitfall in its road than this, that in the mighty cities of the land the comfortable and intelligent masses, who are discriminating more and more closely about the education of their children shall become dissatisfied with the social status of the teachers and the quality of teaching in the common schools. In that event, they will educate their children at their own expense, and the public schools will become only good enough for the use of those who can afford no better. The only way to avert this, is by maintaining the instruction upon a purely scientific and professional footing. This is entirely practicable, but it involves much more care and expense in training teachers, the absolute elimination of favoritism from appointments, the security of the right to advancement after appointment, on the basis of merit, and a general leadership which is kindly, healthful and stimulating to individuals, who can secure harmonious co-operation from all the members and which lends energy and inspiration to the whole body. This cannot be secured if there is any lack of authority, and experience amply proves that it will not be secured if there is any division of responsibility. The whole matter of instruction must be placed in the hands of a superintendent of instruction with independent powers and adequate authority, who is charged with full responsibility.

“For reasons already suggested, the superintendent once appointed, shall have power to appoint from an eligible list all assistants and teachers authorized by the board and unlimited authority to assign them to their respective positions and reassign or remove them from the force at his discretion.”—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 104.*

<sup>(31)</sup> “If the superintendent be clothed with these powers, it follows that he is the officer who should be charged with the direction of all the means employed to enforce compulsory laws.”—*W. H. Maxwell, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1894, p. 316.*

(e) THAT UPON THE APPLICATION OF ANY PERSON FOR A CERTIFICATE AS A TEACHER, AFTER THE EXAMINATION AND APPROVAL OF SAID APPLICANT BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, HE ISSUE TO THE APPLICANT A PROVISIONAL CERTIFICATE OF QUALIFICATION FOR TWO YEARS, WHICH, AFTER PROOF OF SUCCESS FOR THIS PERIOD, SHALL BE MADE PERMANENT FOR CONTINUOUS SERVICE WITHOUT FURTHER EXAMINATION ;

Your commission believes that the examination of teachers should not be intrusted to the superintendent alone, although this is a widely prevalent method.<sup>(32)</sup> Applicants for a position in the teaching force of the city, when approved by the examining board, should, however, be granted a certificate of qualification by the superintendent. This certificate should not be made permanently valid at first, but should carry with it only the qualification to teach for a term of two years after appointment.<sup>(33)</sup> After this test, on proof of the teacher's success, it may well be made permanent for continuous service without further examination.<sup>(34)</sup>

(f) THAT HE HAVE A SEAT AND THE PRIVILEGES OF THE FLOOR IN THE BOARD, BUT NO VOTE.

Many difficulties between a superintendent and a board of education have arisen from a lack of close connection and sympathy between the two. If the superintendent is to be in a real sense the educational adviser of the board, he should be given the privilege here indicated and be allowed during the meetings of the board to participate freely in the discussions, and at any time to make suggestions and explanations. He is not to be considered a mere employe, but rather a worthy and honored co-worker with the board, and as such should be treated on equal terms. Due tribute to his important position will reflect like dignity on the board itself.<sup>(35)</sup>

(32) See Examining Board. Article IV, Section 5.

(33) "We recommend that no one should be permanently appointed as teacher or principal, who has not shown by at least two years' successful experience that he or she is qualified for the position."—*The George Howland Club*.

(34) The phrase "continuous service" should not be so construed as to prevent the re-employment of a teacher after temporary and authorized absence from duty, even if the absence be for the whole or for the greater part of a year.

(35) "He shall have a seat in the board of education and the right to speak on all matters before the board, but not to vote."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,079*.

SECTION 2.—(a) THAT THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS BE PUT IN CHARGE OF NOT MORE THAN TWENTY-FIVE SCHOOLS EACH, AND THAT THE PRESENT NUMBER OF ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS BE INCREASED TO MEET THIS PROPORTION ;

The work of the superintendent, as here outlined, is first of all the educational administration of the schools. To accomplish this adequately, he requires the services of assistants liberally educated and of wide experience, in whose hands he can place with full confidence the details of supervision. These assistants must not only command the respect of the teaching force and the general public, but must be in entire sympathy with the general policy of the superintendent himself. For their work, the latter is responsible, and we believe, therefore, that he only should make these appointments.

If the assistant is to fulfill his duties properly, he should not have charge of as large a district as at present. Seven or eight assistants cannot efficiently supervise the instruction of five thousand teachers and more than a quarter of a million pupils. The force of superintendents should, therefore, be increased until not more than twenty-five schools need be assigned to any one assistant superintendent.<sup>(36)</sup>

(b) THAT THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS SEVERALLY REPRESENT THE SUPERINTENDENT IN THE SCHOOLS WHICH MAY BE PLACED UNDER THEIR CHARGE, AND BE GIVEN DEFINED RIGHTS OF CONSULTATION IN REGARD TO THE APPOINTMENT, THE PROMOTION AND THE DISMISSAL OF TEACHERS IN THEIR SCHOOLS ;

The function of the assistant superintendents is to represent, each in his own district, the superintendent. They derive their authority from him, and their relation both to him and the teachers should be largely advisory, with such duties and powers as the superintendent may see fit to delegate to them. It seems clear that they have not hitherto been able to enter into sufficiently close relations with the principals and teachers, a fact which has given rise to much criticism of the supervising force, that

<sup>(36)</sup> "I would reduce that to twenty, in order that he may make his personal influence felt more strongly than he will be able to do if he must care for twenty-five. However, it occurs to me that an assistant superintendent should have charge of a certain number of teachers rather than a certain number of schools. There ought to be an assistant superintendent for every one hundred teachers, to get the best results out of the system. That undoubtedly would be too expensive, but I should rather base the assistants upon the number of teachers than upon the number of schools."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Schools, Des Moines, Ia.*

otherwise would not be well founded. An increase in the number of assistant superintendents would enable each one to have an intimate personal knowledge of the principals of his district, and, by co-operation with these<sup>(37)</sup>, exercise a far deeper influence on the school system than at present. In order to increase his efficiency in this direction, each assistant should be relieved of much of the routine work now required of him; it may be advisable, moreover, to establish for each assistant superintendent an office in some school as nearly as feasible in the center of his district.

(c) THAT ONE ASSISTANT SERVE, WHEN CHOSEN FOR THIS PURPOSE BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, WITH OTHER PERSONS HEREINAFTER DESIGNATED, ON THE EXAMINING BOARD.

The underlying principle of the examining board is that of differentiating the functions of examination and appointment. If an equal number of assistant superintendents were appointed as of outsiders, the action of the board would be controlled by those on whom the choice of teachers will practically fall; but the presence of one assistant superintendent is essential to keep the Examining Board in touch with the schools and to afford the superintendent the opportunity to obtain through a representative some knowledge of candidates, aside from that based on the formal examination.

SECTION 3.—THAT THE SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS HAVE THE GENERAL CHARGE OF THEIR SEVERAL SUBJECTS IN THE NORMAL, THE HIGH AND THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT AN ASSISTANT SUPERVISOR IN EACH SUBJECT BE APPOINTED IF NECESSARY, IN EACH DISTRICT OR CLOSELY CONNECTED GROUP OF DISTRICTS.

The methods of supervision of special subjects in the course of study will be considered more fully in a later article. Your commission would call attention here only to the lack of success due to friction and inefficiency<sup>(38)</sup> in the plan now followed of assigning a different supervisor

(37) "These assistants should deal more directly with the principals, and delegate to them certain duties and powers that they now attempt to perform. Let the teacher be responsible for his room, the principal for his school, the assistant superintendent for his district, the superintendent for all districts and the board of education for the superintendent, and through him for the efficiency of the entire system."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(38) "We believe that the best interests of the schools demand that music and drawing be placed under one supervisor for each subject in all grades of the public schools."—*The George Howland Club*.



for a particular subject in each of the three main divisions of the school course, i. e., one in the high school, and one each in the primary and the grammar divisions of the elementary schools.<sup>(39)</sup> Although it may be well to modify methods in different grades, there should be at least sufficient continuity to develop one underlying principle of instruction in any subject—drawing or music, for example. Symmetry and cohesion in the instruction of any branch can be secured, we believe, only by the assignment of one supervisor, to be fully responsible for all work in his subject throughout the system. This plan would have the further advantage of reducing to a considerable extent the number of assistants needed, and of decreasing the expense of supervision.

#### SECTION 4. (1).—THAT THE PRINCIPAL BE GIVEN BY THE BOARD DEFINED PRIVILEGES OF CONSULTATION :

In considering the duties of the principal, your commission has been deeply impressed with the importance of this office<sup>(40)</sup> and of the desirability of securing for it the ablest men and women possible. The responsibility<sup>(41)</sup> of the principal has not been sufficiently recognized hitherto, and

<sup>(39)</sup> "I am heartily in favor of continuing and strengthening the work now done in music, drawing, physical culture, Latin and German. In the work in music, I believe that more systematic, well-balanced work would be secured if all the music from the kindergarten to and through the high school were placed under the supervision of one person instead of three as at present."—*A Chicago Principal*.

"No person shall be eligible for election as supervisor of a special branch, as music, drawing, kindergarten, etc., who is not (a) a graduate of a high school or of an institution of an equal or higher scholastic rank; and (b) a graduate from a course of professional training of at least one year in the special branch that he is to supervise or teach; and (c) a teacher of that special branch of at least three years' successful experience."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,115*.

<sup>(40)</sup> "The principal of a school holds an important position. Upon him are placed responsibilities which must be fully measured and justly and faithfully discharged. He should be an expert in the practical management of all the details of school life. He should be abreast of all that is best in education, a careful student, a thorough analyzer of men and things and processes. He should have clear tact and great discretion; should be self-contained and ready for all emergencies at all times."—"The School Principal," *Editorial in American School Board Journal*, May, 1898.

<sup>(41)</sup> "The principal should be held to a strict responsibility, within certain well defined lines, for the administration of the school or schools under his direction. He has duties to perform toward his pupils and those in parental relation to them, subordinate teachers, and toward his immediate official superior, the superintendent. He should, in the first place, be an expert in school sanitation.



the majority of principals have not exercised the intimate, controlling influence over their schools that might fairly be expected of those in immediate charge. While recognizing that Chicago is fortunate in having many principals who unite scholarship with experience and enthusiasm with executive ability, we still believe that the school system may be greatly strengthened in this particular.<sup>(42)</sup> The present difficulties may not fairly be attributed to the principals themselves. When promotion to this office is made for any reason except for proved efficiency—a deplorable course, which, we believe, has been followed more than once in the history of the city—when the position itself is made less desirable by curtailing its natural privileges and responsibilities, when changes in assignment from one school to another do not depend solely on merit, and when, furthermore, it is not clearly understood that failure to discharge these duties properly will be followed by prompt dismissal or transferment to a less

It may not be well to place in the hand of a principal the power to spend money, to make repairs and alterations in the school building, but he should know when the condition of the building is not right, and should make life a burden to those who have the power until defects are remedied. He should have a keen eye to discover physical weaknesses in children, such as myopia, or astigmatism of the eyes, or nervous disorders, and should be skilled to take measures of prevention, if not cure. Equally keen should be his discernment of intellectual and moral defects, such as a poor memory, lack of constructive ability, lying, dishonesty, and the like. In all such cases it is his duty to devise, if possible, a course of educational treatment to cure the disease.”—*W. H. Maxwell, Superintendent, New York Public Schools.*

(42) “I consider the greatest hindrance to our progress to be the poor average education, not of the teachers, but of the principals. It is humiliating and astonishing how few have ever been students in a college or university, and what a large proportion are of those who have had no more education than the teachers under them, except that by the persistent reading of books in ‘cramming for examinations’ they have managed to ‘break through’ an examination and get a small primary school which, as population increases, becomes a large grammar school, and a person who has spent his years and money in college or university training has no advantage in our system over such. The result is that there is little inducement for our first-class young men to enter our ranks, and our schools suffer. My suggestion is, that the grade of scholarship of our principals be raised; that no one be given charge of a grammar school who is not college or university educated.”—*A Chicago Principal.*

“The assignment of teachers to classes should be left to the principal, subject to the approval of the superintendent. As a rule, the best trained teachers, those receiving the highest salaries, should be placed in the lower primary and the upper grammar grades, while the young and inexperienced should be placed in the intermediate.”—*J. H. Phillips, Superintendent, Birmingham (Ala.) Public Schools.*

responsible position, the *morale* of the whole body is necessarily threatened. Under such conditions no efficient force can be secured, and even those who might otherwise prove themselves capable and faithful principals suffer from the lack of that support which might secure their success. Too great care cannot be taken in appointing, promoting, and, when necessary, reducing or removing principals. A body of competent principals<sup>(43)</sup> once established, however, we believe that to them should be assigned a larger voice than at present in the administration of school affairs. Any system of administration is peculiarly susceptible even in proportion to its general efficiency, to the danger of becoming fixed and inflexible, and if there is any system where spontaneity and right of initiative with independent experimentation are especially needed, it is in that of public instruction. Therefore, no powers should be taken from the teacher which do not necessarily belong to higher officers. The principal in his turn should be given the utmost freedom possible in administering the schools assigned to him, to the end that each may solve for himself in the light of his own experience and special knowledge the problems which never present themselves in exactly the same form in two different schools.

(a) IN THE APPOINTMENT, PROMOTION AND REMOVAL OF TEACHERS IN HIS OWN SCHOOL; <sup>(44)</sup>

Valid arguments have been advanced, we believe, for placing the final responsibility of educational affairs upon the superintendent. It is ex-

(43) "We recommend that candidates for principals of primary schools should be required to pass a rigid examination, and should have given evidence, by their records, of unusual executive ability while teachers.

"We recommend that candidates for principals of grammar schools should be required to pass an examination covering all subjects usually required for the Bachelor's degree in colleges and universities of recognized standing, including pedagogics.

"We recommend that principals of high schools should be possessed of Master's or Doctor's degrees (*Non Causa Honoris*) and have had at least five years of successful experience as principal, or should have given evidence, by their records, of unusual executive power while teachers, and be subject to a professional examination of qualifications by the board of superintendents."—*The George Howland Club*.

"Principals of all schools should be graduates of colleges and be thoroughly conversant with the theories of education, and have had not less than five years' successful experience as teachers."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(44) "Further, it seems to me that so far as practicable the principals of the respective schools should have a voice in the selection of teachers for their respective schools. Certainly no teacher should be retained in a school who is not acceptable to the principal thereof."—*A Chicago Superintendent*.

pected, however, that in matters of detail, and in dealing with larger educational problems, he will be aided and guided by the experience of his assistants. The principal also should have the privilege of consultation with his immediate superintendent in regard to the affairs of his own school, and in each case of assigning, transferring or promoting teachers, the assistant superintendent should be expected to confer with the principal of the school.<sup>(45)</sup> Although the final decision of these questions should lie with the superintendent, he will show his ability to secure proper support by sharing freely this responsibility with the principal of each school affected. On the other hand, no final rights in this matter can properly be assigned to the principal except that of consultation, which will in proportion, again, as the principal is the man for his position, prove to be all that is necessary.<sup>(46)</sup>

(b) IN THE CARRYING OUT WITHIN PROPER LIMITATIONS OF THE COURSE OF STUDY;

The determination in general outline of the course of study has been recognized to be an important function of the board of education as representative of the people. The details of this general plan have been assigned to the superintendent, acting with his assistants. No course of study, however, should be so fixed and inflexible as not to allow even in important particulars such modification as will adapt it to a particular district or section.<sup>(47)</sup> Exactly the same studies in exactly the same proportion and by exactly similar methods should not be taught in all parts of the city. In settling on such modifications as may seem desirable in a particular school, the function of the principal implies some privileges in determining the course of study. While these privileges should be clearly suggested in the rules of the board of education, they should be carefully

(45) "We believe that the best interests of the schools would be subserved by consultations with the principal previous to permanent appointment of a teacher."—*The George Howland Club*.

(46) "It is urged that a term of trial be required before a teacher or a principal be permanently placed in a school, and that the principal be consulted in regard to the appointment of a teacher or her transfer into the school."—*Ella F. Young Club, Chicago*.

(47) The school problem in Chicago shows a wide variation, for example, in the nineteenth ward or twenty-third ward from what it is in the third or fourth. In the first two, the primary question is the securing of a knowledge of the English language by the children of foreign-born residents, and for them the course of study should be flexible to meet conditions which vary in different schools and even in the same school from year to year.

limited, so as not to interfere with the responsibility in the last instance of the superintendent.

(c) IN THE CHOICE OF TEXT-BOOKS.

Just as the course of study should be modified at the suggestion of the principal where it may seem necessary, so in the matter of text-books needed in carrying out the course, the principal should be given a hearing by the superintendent, and should be allowed such freedom as the board of education may authorize.

SECTION 4. (2).—THAT THE PRINCIPAL BE GIVEN DEFINED RIGHTS:

(a) IN THE APPLICATION AND EXTENSION OF THE DEPARTMENTAL PLAN OF INSTRUCTION, SUBJECT TO THE GENERAL SUPERVISION OF THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS;

The principal should have the privilege of introducing, with the concurrence of the superintendent and the respective assistant, the departmental plan of instruction, that is, the assignment to a particular teacher of one or two subjects in several grades, instead of the full teaching of all subjects in one grade. The value of this plan has been repeatedly recognized by those conversant with school systems, and it has been successfully employed by progressive principals in Chicago.

(b) IN THE SUPERVISION OF THE WORK OF THE JANITORS AND ENGINEERS.

The principal should have certain powers of control over the janitor or the engineer of his building.<sup>(48)</sup> Although the appointment and dis-

(48) "The principal should have at least the veto power on the appointment of janitors, etc. He should have the power of removing a janitor for cause, probably subject to review. In all large towns the janitor force tends to become a political machine. It is not uncommon for janitors to bully teachers and principals. It may seem a small matter, but any reformed school system ought to do away with the possibility of this."—*A City Principal*.

"I do not believe that it is wise to have the appointment of janitors especially, entirely out of the charge of the superintendent, from the fact that the efficiency of the janitor is very essential to the success of the school, and in many cases an inefficient janitor almost ruins the comfort of pupils and teachers. It might be well to allow the business manager to appoint the janitor, and so on, but certainly the advice of the superintendent should be sought and should have some little binding force. I think it should be made binding upon the business manager to consult with the superintendents and with the principals concerning the appointment of janitors for each building."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Schools, Des Moines, Ia.*

charge of the latter has been recommended as one of the duties of the business manager, yet the relation between the principal and these employes is so close that the business manager should be expected to give prompt and careful consideration to any complaint of a principal in regard to the care of his building. Friction frequently arises between principals and janitors, and in order to avoid this, the suggestion has been made that the principal be given the appointment of the janitor in his school.<sup>(49)</sup> This plan, however, cannot be recommended, as it would be a violation of the ruling idea of concentration of authority and responsibility. We suggest, therefore, that at the request of the principal the janitor be either discharged or transferred. Such action is fair to both parties and will assist also in avoiding the recognized danger of personal or political considerations in the appointment of the janitor or the engineer.

SECTION 5.—THAT THE PRINCIPAL BE DIRECTED TO TEACH DURING NOT LESS THAN ONE-HALF OF EACH SCHOOL DAY.

The cost of supervision in Chicago seems unduly high. This does not come from the employment of too many assistant superintendents. On the contrary, your commission has already recommended a larger number of these officers. The excessive cost of supervision here as compared with that of many cities, is due in part to the slight demand made of the principals in the way of teaching, and to the entirely abnormal proportion of head assistants, assistants to principals and extra teachers. Under these various titles, many teachers have been employed who are not performing a fair service in the system. A careful revision of these lists would lead to a considerable saving in the cost of supervision and instruction. The principal is rightly expected to supervise the work of his school, and a considerable portion of his time must be given to this duty. We are fully persuaded, however, that if the principal be required to teach at least half of the school day, his general efficiency will be greater, the teaching in his school will be improved and a saving of many thousands of dollars will be effected.

(49) "No person is fit for the principalship of a school who has not enough practical ability to supervise the mere material side as well as the scholastic side of school work. I thoroughly believe that the best plan would be to give the principals the power to appoint the janitors."—*A City Principal*.

SECTION 6.—THAT EXPERT INSPECTORS BE EMPLOYED BY THE BOARD FROM TIME TO TIME TO STUDY THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY AND MAKE REPORTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE BOARD.

There is an inherent danger in all grades of educational work of a certain rigidity due to a lack of infusion of new blood and ideas in the teaching force. This is more particularly true in the schools of a large city, where the teachers have been in the main educated under the same school system in which they now give instruction. There is the further danger that the force of superintendents, immersed of necessity in daily routine, will fail in the important duty of grasping the force and trend of new educational ideas and methods, and of assimilating them properly in the school system. The superintendent should be wideawake to all advance in educational thought, but in this, as in many other particulars, he should be granted due and proper assistance. In order, then, to prevent the system from becoming too self-centered, and to secure the best results of experience elsewhere and the most competent and helpful criticism of the general principles and methods of our schools, your commission recommends the employment from time to time of inspectors, whose reports may serve to guide the policy of the board and the administration of the superintendent. These inspectors should be recognized experts in educational affairs, and that they may be unbiased and untrammelled, they should be engaged from without the city.

The Examination, the  
Appointment and the Pro-  
motion of Teachers

ARTICLE IV

Your Commission would respectfully make the following recommendations affecting the teaching force of the city:

SECTION 1.—THAT OF ALL PERSONS SEEKING EMPLOYMENT AS TEACHERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, THERE BE MADE THE FOLLOWING REQUIREMENTS; VIZ., EITHER

(a) A CERTIFICATE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CITY, APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, AND A CERTIFICATE SIGNED BY A PHYSICIAN APPOINTED BY THE BOARD TO THE EFFECT THAT THE CANDIDATE IS IN GOOD HEALTH AND FREE FROM ALL DISABLING PHYSICAL DEFECTS; OR

(b) AN EXAMINATION BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, AND  
(1) EVIDENCE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD OF SUCCESSFUL WORK AS TEACHER FOR THE PERIOD OF FOUR YEARS, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE; OR

(2) THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE OF A COLLEGE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD AND EVIDENCE OF AT LEAST NINE MONTHS' STUDY OF THE HISTORY, PRINCIPLES, AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE;

SECTION 2.—THAT OF ALL PERSONS DESIRING TO BE EXAMINED FOR POSITIONS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, THERE BE MADE THE FOLLOWING REQUIREMENTS, VIZ., EITHER

(a) EVIDENCE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, OF SUCCESSFUL TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS OF THIS CITY FOR SIX YEARS, AND OF COLLEGIATE SCHOLARSHIP, WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE; OR

(b) THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE OF A COLLEGE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, WITH SATISFACTORY EVIDENCE EITHER OF NINE MONTHS' STUDY OF THE HISTORY, PRINCIPLES, AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING, OR OF THREE YEARS' SUCCESSFUL TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS BE INTRUSTED TO AN EXAMINING BOARD, MADE UP OF THE SUPERINTENDENT, ONE OF THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS SELECTED BY THE SUPERINTEND-



ENT, AND THREE SPECIAL EXAMINERS; THAT THE SPECIAL EXAMINERS BE GRADUATES OF A COLLEGE OF GOOD STANDING, OR POSSESS AN EDUCATIONAL EQUIVALENT THERETO, WITH FIVE OR MORE YEARS SUCCESSFUL EXPERIENCE AS TEACHERS, BE APPOINTED, ONE EACH YEAR, BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, FOR A TERM OF THREE YEARS FROM AN ELIGIBLE LIST OF AT LEAST THREE TIMES THE NUMBER TO BE APPOINTED, CERTIFIED TO BY THE SUPERINTENDENT; BE NOT OTHERWISE CONNECTED WITH THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY, AND RECEIVE PROPER COMPENSATION FOR THEIR WORK;

SECTION 4.—THAT THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS, AT FIRST FOR A PROBATIONARY TERM OF TWO SUCCESSIVE YEARS, AND AFTER THAT ON GOOD BEHAVIOR AND DURING SATISFACTORY SERVICE, BE MADE BY THE SUPERINTENDENT FROM THE LIST OF THOSE WHO HOLD HIS CERTIFICATES, SUBJECT ONLY TO A VETO BY A MAJORITY OF THE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD; AND

SECTION 5.—THAT EXPERIENCED TEACHERS, WHEN APPOINTED FROM OUTSIDE THE CITY, AFTER A PHYSICAL EXAMINATION, BE GIVEN CREDIT FOR SUCH EXPERIENCE IN DETERMINING THEIR GRADE IN THE SALARY SCHEDULE OF THE CITY, NOT EXCEEDING ONE YEAR FOR EACH TWO YEARS OF SUCH OUTSIDE TERM OF SERVICE; PROVIDED, THAT IN NO CASE CREDIT FOR MORE THAN FIVE YEARS BE GIVEN;

SECTION 6.—THAT PROMOTION BE BASED ON THE PREVIOUS GOOD RECORD OF THE TEACHER AS INDICATED BY THE REPORT OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, AND ON PROGRESS MADE, BOTH IN SCHOLARSHIP AND IN TEACHING ABILITY, AS RECOGNIZED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD;

SECTION 7.—THAT THE PRESENT SCHEDULE OF THE SALARIES OF THE CITY UNDER RECENT CHANGES BE RECOGNIZED AS NOT PROPERLY PROPORTIONED TO THE VARIOUS POSITIONS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM, AS PROVIDING IN MANY GROUPS SALARIES SO HIGH THAT THE EFFICIENCY OF THE SCHOOLS IN OTHER PARTICULARS CANNOT UNDER THE LIMITATIONS OF THE LAW GOVERNING THE TAX LEVY, BE ADEQUATELY SECURED, AND AS LIABLE, THEREFORE, TO CAUSE EITHER FINANCIAL EMBARRASSMENT TO THE BOARD OR SUDDEN AND PREJUDICIAL RETRENCHMENT, UNLESS THE SCHEDULE BE READJUSTED AT AN EARLY TIME;

SECTION 8.—THAT A SCHEDULE OF SALARIES BE ADOPTED WHICH WILL RECOGNIZE DISTINCTIONS IN REGARD TO THE GRADE OR SUBJECTS IN WHICH THE TEACHER GIVES INSTRUCTION, THE TERM OF SERVICE OF THE TEACHER, THE SUCCESS ALREADY ACHIEVED, AND WELL PROVED ADVANCE IN SCHOLARSHIP AND TEACHING ABILITY;

SECTION 9.—THAT ALL SUITABLE MEANS BE USED TO PUT A LARGER PROPORTION OF MEN TEACHERS IN THE HIGHER GRADES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AS POSITIONS THEREIN MAY HEREAFTER BECOME VACANT AND, IF IT BE FOUND NECESSARY TO THE SECURING OF THIS END, THAT HIGHER SALARIES BE PROVIDED FOR MEN THAN FOR WOMEN IN THESE GRADES;

SECTION 10.—THAT THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT BE ACCEPTED AS SUFFICIENT REASON FOR CHANGE OF ASSIGNMENT BY THE SUPERINTENDENT OF A TEACHER ON THE GROUND OF INEFFICIENCY; AND

SECTION 11.—THAT AFTER TWO SUCH CHANGES IN ASSIGNMENT, AND UPON THE RECOMMENDATION FOR A THIRD CHANGE BY THE PRINCIPAL AND THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, THE TEACHER SHALL BE RETIRED FROM THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, UNLESS HIS ACTION BE DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO.

Of all the questions affecting the public school system of the city, there is no one more fundamental than that of securing a good force of teachers. This problem, as contrasted with many others which must be solved by the board of education, demands the aid of experts. Your commission has already affirmed the belief that the superintendent can best secure the desired end;<sup>(1)</sup> and that in his effort, he must be, on the one hand, free from suggestion or interference by the board in particular instances, and on the other, cordially supported by his assistants and by the principals. The ideal method for the securing of good teachers in a small community is absolutely unrestricted choice by the superintendent. Even in cities of considerable size, admirable results have attended this plan, and in more than one city, the character of the teaching force has been wonderfully improved within a short time after the granting of this power to the educational head of the system.<sup>(2)</sup> The conditions in a city of the largest size, however, are essentially different. Here the number of teachers is so large<sup>(3)</sup> and, consequently, the pressure brought to bear on the superin-

(1) See Article III, Section 1, d.

(2) This seems notably true in Minneapolis, where an able superintendent has been largely trusted in these matters by the board of education.

(3) The number of teachers in the public schools of Chicago in the year ending June, 1894, was 3, 812, and for the succeeding years the numbers have been 4,326, 4,668, 4,914, 5,268. In the year ending June, 1897, there were 119 resignations and for the following year 129, making the total number of new appointments for the two years, respectively, 386 and 483.

tendent for the appointment of individuals is so great, that it is not an undue limitation of his powers for the state law or for the board to indicate in general the conditions for entrance to the teaching body. The requirements which are here proposed, express, we believe, the sentiments of the public in regard to the minimum qualifications proper for a teacher in the schools of Chicago, and will serve to relieve the board of education and the superintendent of much unnecessary trouble and labor over the appointment and promotion of teachers. We suggest that the conditions here outlined be incorporated in the school law of the state, for experience has shown that strong efforts are frequently made to induce a board of education to violate its own principles of action in individual cases under suspension of the rules. It appears that there is no way of freeing the board from such annoyances except by determining these restrictions through legislative enactment.

That the superintendent should be required to appoint only men and women of good education and professional training does not curtail his powers, but aids him in the selection of a corps of teachers; but there is one principle here recommended that may at first thought appear to modify his power and therefore lessen his responsibility. This is formulated in the recommendation for the appointment of an examining board.<sup>(4)</sup> While the plans followed in different cities have widely varied, the superintendent under favorable conditions has frequently possessed the triple power of examination, appointment, and promotion of teachers. Even where these powers have not been formally delegated to him by the board, they have been assigned to him by tacit consent, since a board of education acting on intelligent principles recognizes, if not immediately, at least after some experience, the desirability of this transference of function.<sup>(5)</sup> Recent

(4) "A board of examiners is hereby constituted, whose duty it shall be to examine all applicants requiring to be licensed in and for the city of New York, and to issue to those who pass the required tests of character, scholarship and general fitness, such licenses as they are found entitled to receive. Such board of examiners shall consist of the city superintendent of schools, together with four persons appointed by the board of education upon the nomination of the city superintendent. The terms of the first four examiners so appointed shall be one, two, three and four years respectively, and as their terms respectively expire, their successor shall be appointed for a full term of four years, which shall thereafter be the full and regular term of office of said examiners. They shall be paid such compensation for services actually rendered as the board of education shall prescribe."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,081.*

(5) The superintendent issues certificates to teachers in Providence, Indianapolis, Allegheny and Denver. The last named city offers a conspicuous example of giving to the superintendent the freest hand in the management of the educational system.

"I was for ten years the superintendent of instruction in the city of —."

educational history, moreover, shows a tendency to differentiate the work in these particulars. In large cities it becomes, after a certain point, impossible for the superintendent to form a correct judgment of the mass of candidates through personal investigation. It has been thought wise, therefore, to transfer this responsibility, first of all, to his assistants. Further reflection seems to show the advantage of separating entirely, by placing in different hands, the examination from the appointment of candidates.<sup>(6)</sup> This is the basic principle of a sound civil service, distinctly formulated in the new charter of New York, and one which has the approval of our most experienced educators.<sup>(7)</sup> Considering the weighty

During these ten years the school board conferred by common consent on me the power of appointing, promoting, and discharging teachers, they reserving the power to confirm my appointments.”—*A City Superintendent*.

“Examination of all applicants for situations as teacher, principal, kindergarten teacher or director shall be made by the superintendent of instruction or under his direction. A record thereof shall be kept for the inspection of the board. All appointments, transfers and discharges of assistant superintendents, supervisors, teachers, and subordinates, in his department, shall be made by the superintendent of instruction in accordance with the law creating this board, and subject to the approval of the board, where such approval is required.”—*Rules and Regulations, St. Louis Board of Education. Rule 39, Section 1.*

<sup>(6)</sup> See preceding page. Similar examining boards have been formed in Buffalo, San Francisco and Cincinnati.

<sup>(7)</sup> “I think the examining board should not include the superintendent or any assistant superintendent. As these officers have much to do with promotion, it seems fair that teachers should be examined independently of them.”—*Seth Low, President, Columbia University.*

“It is in general accordance with the principles of a sound civil service system that the power to examine teachers and the power to appoint, should be kept distinct. I believe, therefore, that a board of examiners should be constituted, in a city so large as Chicago, made up of the city superintendent of schools and say three or four persons nominated by him and confirmed by the board of education. These persons should hold all examinations, whether for admission to the system or for promotion, and should certify to eligible lists, prepared as the result of such action. The actual appointments and promotions should, I believe, be made by the board of superintendents, in which the city superintendent would have but his own vote, thus keeping distinct the power of examination and the power of appointment. These appointments and promotions should then be reported to the board of education, and should take effect without action by that board, unless specifically disapproved of within thirty days by a two-thirds vote. This policy will put the responsibility for selecting and adjusting the teaching force where it belongs, namely, on the trained educational officers. At the same time, the privilege given to the board of education of setting aside this action, for reasons of weight and by large vote, is a protection against hasty or injudicious selections. In my judgment, the less the board of education has to do with the administration of the purely educational work of the system, the

duties attached to the examination, appointment, and promotion of teachers, in a city like Chicago, any plan which, while not dividing responsibility, will secure an additional element of sound, impartial judgment, is one which your commission feels should be adopted. Such a plan, we believe, necessitates the use of the examining board, which is recommended later.

The subject of teachers' salaries is a delicate matter.<sup>(8)</sup> With more than five thousand teachers on the pay-roll of the city, the nicest discrimination must be used in determining an equitable schedule, which shall recognize duly the value of service in different positions, which shall tend in every possible way to stimulate good work and to advance scholarship, and which shall offer a fair reward for successful effort. For the public, on the other hand, the board of education must secure proper instruction without unduly increasing the tax rate of the city. What seem to be minor changes made during recent months in the pay of teachers of Chicago, have already increased the monthly salary list more than fifty thousand dollars, and promise to cause an annual increase within a very few years of more than a million dollars in the expense of the school system.<sup>(9)</sup>

better. It is the function of this board to represent the community in questions of general policy and to select expert superintendents, whose policy should be supported so long as they have the confidence of the board. When that confidence is lost, they should be displaced."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

"I think that a determination of the qualifications of the teachers and their employment ought to be in absolutely independent hands. By such arrangements you can secure a far more independent judgment, in the one case, and action in the other than where the two functions are united in one person or body."—*Thomas B. Stockwell, State Commissioner of Public Schools, Rhode Island.*

<sup>(8)</sup> It is a noteworthy fact that until recently the teachers of Chicago have never united in general support of any proposition except one that promised to affect their salaries, but on this point they have proved themselves most able and successful agitators.

<sup>(9)</sup> "Recent increases in salaries make the outlook extremely doubtful, and while I have always been the friend of the grade teacher, I think there should be substantial retrenchment wherever possible. As chairman of the committee on retrenchment and reform, together with those associated with me at the time, I was unrelenting to anything calculated to create unrest among the grade teachers; nevertheless, I maintained there should be unceasing vigilance to the end that a perfect school system may be conducted at the least possible cost. Already we are spending almost as much money for free schools in Chicago as some of the continental nations do for this purpose (Sweden and Norway spend \$8,000,000; Belgium, \$9,000,000) and our needs are increasing."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1893.*

Hardly less vital than these questions of examination, appointment, promotion, and pay of teachers, is the question of the removal of unsuccessful and incompetent teachers. The statement has been freely made by those best acquainted with school affairs in Chicago, that an undue proportion of the teaching body is not performing properly the duties of these positions.<sup>(10)</sup> While we recognize in general the high standard and efficiency of Chicago teachers, we are fully persuaded that with a better system of supervision, properly supported by the board of education and by public opinion, a great improvement could be effected in the force of teachers within a very short period. When teachers are appointed through personal or political influence, and when they are retained, and even promoted for similar reasons, without any justification in their record as teachers, and indeed against the unanimous opinion of those who are best qualified to judge, there is sure to be a large number of incompetents within the force.<sup>(11)</sup> The evil does not end here. Where such conditions prevail, the average teacher lacks all inspiration to self-improvement.<sup>(12)</sup> As human nature is, such efforts will only be inspired by a sense of the necessity of good work to retain a given position, and by a consciousness that honest and sustained efforts toward self-improvement will be promptly appreciated and rewarded.

The teaching force may be possessed of a measurably liberal education and of a fairly satisfactory professional training. It may be impressed

(10) On the part of some, there may be a tendency to exaggeration, but, on the other hand, many who can and should speak fearlessly and impartially on the question, have been restrained by motives of personal policy. Those who can speak from closest knowledge, put the number of inefficient teachers at not less than 15 per cent of the entire force.

(11) As long as the appointment of teachers is in the hands of the board of education, and consequently much pressure is brought to bear on the members, such criticisms will be heard and will be in many instances well founded. It is not true that members in general consciously violate a sense of justice and fairness in this matter, but, believing that the right of appointment is a personal privilege, they see no reason why they should not use it for the benefit of their friends.

(12) "The evil influence of the appointment of teachers by means of 'pulls' does not appear so much in the character of the persons appointed as it does in the demoralization of the body of teachers. It removes a strong incentive to personal improvement. If the appointments depend on 'pulls,' so may promotions and transfers. Each teacher feels secure in her position as long as she has a friend who has influence, or who is on friendly terms with some one who has it. It has several times happened to me that teachers who have been admonished of some neglect, mistake or inefficiency have gone to their friends for protection, instead of avoiding danger by trying to do better."—*Confessions of Three Superintendents, Atlantic, Mo., November, 1898.*



with a sense of responsibility and filled with enthusiasm for its work. It will still not be the force which the city needs unless the standard of admission, and above all, the scholarship and the teaching ability of all engaged in instruction be constantly advancing. The opportunities for preparatory education and training in Illinois are to-day vastly greater than those afforded twenty-five years ago. The conditions of admission should rise correspondingly in every grade of the school system. The duties of each teacher, principal, and supervisor become every year more weighty. Constant growth is imperative in every one that desires to grapple successfully year after year with the problems which confront him. The teacher who was appointed five years ago, granting that he was qualified then, is no longer fit for his position, if every year of his service has not added to his general scholarship, as well as to his knowledge and competency in school technique. More severe tests for admission to the teaching body, unremitting study and development, are the means, not only to educational progress, but even to the maintenance of present efficiency. The teacher who is not advancing is retrograding. The school system which does not each year demand more of every teacher, is in the process of decay. Therefore, we recommend:

SECTION I.—THAT OF ALL PERSONS SEEKING EMPLOYMENT AS TEACHERS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, THERE BE MADE THE FOLLOWING REQUIREMENTS:

Chicago should command as highly qualified teachers as can be found in the country, and, with proper measures, the city will find little difficulty in securing them. The recognized advantages of urban life, the large salaries paid here as compared with those of smaller communities, and the far greater opportunity for a career leading through successful effort to the highest positions in public school work, warrant this assumption. To secure such a force is not merely feasible, it is in the highest sense imperative.

In no city in the United States do more difficult conditions confront a school system.<sup>(13)</sup> Not even in the lower wards of the borough of Man-

<sup>(13)</sup> This statement is true, although, educationally speaking, Chicago seems far in advance of New York. The school accommodations in this city are deficient, but the situation in the latter city is incomparably worse. The educational condition of New York is astonishing. The police census shows that there are 702,162 children of school age in the city, but of these only 468,229 are enrolled in either the public or private schools, and the average attendance is only 334.184. One of the reasons is that there isn't room enough. The total



hattan, thickly populated by foreign-born residents, and in many instances by representatives of the lowest classes, is the problem of how to secure through the public school system that assimilation of heterogeneous elements, which is the supreme need of our civilization, presented more definitely. In reviewing the school districts of Chicago, section after section is found where a large proportion of school children comes from families to whom English is barely known, and where under the best conditions, the ideas and traditions of the home are utterly opposed to the requirements of American citizenship.<sup>(14)</sup> This situation demands of the Chicago teachers broad culture and thorough professional training. Your commission, then, believes that Chicago needs the best teachers of the country, and feels assured that these can be obtained, if the law will define the requirements to be made of all candidates in such a way as to protect the superintendent from a deluge of unfit applicants; and if the board of education will leave the superintendent free to choose the teachers from those who have been prepared adequately for such work. We believe that such a preparation includes:

(a) A CERTIFICATE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL OF THE CITY, APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, AND A CERTIFICATE SIGNED BY A PHYSICIAN APPOINTED BY THE BOARD TO THE EFFECT THAT THE CANDIDATE IS IN GOOD HEALTH AND FREE FROM ALL DISABLING PHYSICAL DEFECTS;

The arguments for the support by the city of a normal school for the seating capacity of all the school houses of Greater New York will only accommodate 385,091, or only about one-half of those who ought to be in attendance. There are only four hundred and five school houses altogether. Thirty-two new buildings were added last year, and fifteen of the old ones were enlarged. The total number of teachers employed was 4,952, which is an average of one to every eighty-four children of school age, one to fifty of the enrolled and one to thirty-five of the average attendance. The total expenditures for school purposes in Greater New York last year were \$10,576,770, making the average cost per pupil \$22.48.

(14) According to a recent census, the major part of the population in the seventh, eighth, ninth and twenty-third wards of Chicago is foreign born. In the seventh ward, where there are 950 persons classed as Americans—that is, descended from parents born in this country, there are more than 4,000 foreign-born Germans and more than 7,000 American-born Germans of foreign parentage; over 1,400 foreign-born Poles and nearly 3,000 American Poles of foreign parentage. In the sixteenth ward there are less than 2,500 Americans, under this distinction of the word; nearly 10,000 foreign-born Germans and an equal number of American Germans of foreign parentage; over 4,000 foreign Norwegians and nearly 3,000 American Norwegians of foreign parentage; nearly 15,000 foreign-born Poles and over 12,000 American-born of Polish parent-

preparation of teachers, will be adduced in a later article.<sup>(15)</sup> From the graduates of this school the teachers will be chosen, in the majority of instances<sup>(16)</sup>, and the diploma of the school should be the minimum condition of entering the body of teachers. Since, however, it often happens, fortunately, that there is a larger number of graduates than can be immediately assigned positions, the examining board should enter the graduates of the normal school on the list of eligibles in such order as indicates their fitness for appointment, and, other things being equal, the superintendent should recommend from this list in the order thus established.

One of the most frequent complaints made against the schools is the presence on the teaching force of many who are handicapped and, perhaps, even rendered unfit for service by reason of physical disability or ill-health. In many instances such disability existed at the very beginning of the teacher's work, and not infrequently in the normal school. Precautions should be taken, therefore, in the selection of teachers, to avoid this danger. The certificate of health here proposed, in the hands of a reputable and careful physician, appointed by the board, will go far to obviate this difficulty, and will contribute in a great measure to the increase of efficiency in the teaching body.<sup>(17)</sup>

age. These figures do not include the foreign-born or the American-born of foreign parentage among the Bulgarians, Bohemians, Canadians, Danish, English, French, Dutch, Hungarians and Italians, of which nations there are representatives sometimes in very large numbers in each of these wards. Such a statement can only suggest one of the greatest problems of education in Chicago.

(15) See Article VII.

(16) "Every city has come of necessity to look to the graduates of its own local school system for an overwhelming supply of its elementary teachers. This fact of itself indicates two great dangers to which the city schools are exposed. The first is the danger from the political, religious and social influences that may be brought to bear upon the appointing power by friends of local aspirants for teaching positions. The second is that a strong feeling is apt to develop in the city against the employment of any outside teachers whatever; and this leads to what is known as in-breeding, which is one of the main sources of stagnation in a large city system. Any city training school must be so organized as to minimize the dangers due to these two causes."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

(17) "I like what is said in regard to the candidates being in good health and free from disabling physical defects. If the physician is honest in his report and correct in his judgment, it will free the schools from a vast amount of poor teaching."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-Superintendent of Instruction (Iowa.)*

"I am particularly impressed with the requirement of health certificates for applicants for teachers' positions. This is a movement in the right direction. I am satisfied that the superintendents throughout the country are frequently

In other instances the preparation may be indicated by

- (b) AN EXAMINATION BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, AND
- (1) EVIDENCE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD OF SUCCESSFUL WORK AS TEACHER FOR THE PERIOD OF FOUR YEARS, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE; OR
- (2) THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE OF A COLLEGE<sup>(18)</sup>, APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, AND EVIDENCE OF AT LEAST NINE MONTHS' STUDY OF THE HISTORY, PRINCIPLES, AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE.

While the teachers of Chicago will always come in great measure from the graduates of the city normal school, it is often desirable to secure from the outside, men and women who have been conspicuously successful. Thus fresh blood may be infused into the system. This will keep the schools from the imminent danger of becoming too self-centered. An examination by the examining board should be required of all teachers from outside the city, and this examination should clearly prove the possession by those certified, of an education at least as liberal as that of the Chicago high schools, and a grade of professional training not inferior to that of the Chicago normal school. As only experienced teachers of ability are to be encouraged to enter our schools, a further requirement should be made of successful teaching through a term of years, in addition to good health, such as has been already indicated by the physician's certificate.

The education afforded in a city high school, and the special training of a good normal school, form the minimum preparation which can be regarded as satisfactory. Many who have a preparation much superior to this would doubtless gladly accept positions in our schools. Notably is this the case with college graduates—men and women of liberal education, who see in our city schools the opportunities of professional advance not offered in smaller communities. In order to attract these, your commission believes it would be well to open the way to them by recognizing

worried with the appointment of teachers physically unfit to perform their duties as they should be performed."—*Warren Easton, Superintendent, Public Schools, New Orleans, La.*

(18) "Graduates of colleges and universities recognized by the regents of the University of the State of New York, who have pursued for not less than one year pedagogical courses therein, graduates of schools and colleges for the training of teachers approved by the state superintendent of public instruction, and teachers holding a certificate issued by the state superintendent of public instruction since the year 1875, or holding a college graduate's certificate issued by the same authority, may be exempted, in whole or in part, from such examination at the discretion of the city superintendent."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,081.*

their college work as a fair equivalent of normal school training.<sup>(19)</sup> Yet care must be exercised in accrediting candidates from these institutions; the examining board should be satisfied that the college in question offers opportunities for a liberal education, and that its diploma is a fair proof of the satisfactory completion of its course.<sup>(20)</sup> The college applicant, further, should have completed a systematic course of study in the history, principles, and practice of teaching.

SECTION 2.—THAT OF ALL PERSONS DESIRING TO BE EXAMINED FOR POSITIONS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS, THERE BE MADE THE FOLLOWING REQUIREMENTS:

The conditions of admission to positions in the high schools of the city should naturally be more severe than those which are imposed in the case of the elementary schools. There is a growing tendency throughout the country to admit as high school teachers only those possessed of college degrees; this is practically an absolute rule even in some of the smaller communities of our state. Your commission notes with pleasure an increasing proportion in our high schools of persons thus trained. We believe that it is a sound educational principle that no one should teach in the schools of a given grade who has not had the broader and deeper education afforded in the schools of higher grade.<sup>(21)</sup> There should be

<sup>(19)</sup> Some recognition is given college graduates at present, the rules and regulations of the board (page 24) providing that "candidates unquestionably qualified by degrees conferred by colleges of high standing and also recommended as successful teachers, shall receive certificates on the recommendation of the superintendent and four of the assistant superintendents and a vote of the majority of the board." In addition to this, college training is taken as clearly equivalent to the four years of teaching required of outsiders who desire to enter the service of the city. It may be well to leave the examining board quite free in their test of these applicants, even to the extent of making this examination itself largely formal, depending upon the character of the institutions granting the degrees. To secure this, the examining board should prepare a list of accredited colleges.

<sup>(20)</sup> "The 'diploma of a college' and the evidence of 'at least nine months' study of pedagogy' have very little value in themselves except as minimum requirements. There are plenty of 'colleges' whose diplomas and courses in pedagogy are little more than 'fakes,' and such institutions will be much in evidence if any value is attached to their product—is, in fact, very near to Chicago now."—*David Starr Jordan, President Leland Stanford University.*

<sup>(21)</sup> "It is a widely prevalent doctrine, to which the customs of our best schools conform, that teachers of elementary schools should have a secondary or high school education. Your committee believe that these are the minimum

no teachers in our elementary schools who have not had at least a high school and a normal school training. And every teacher in our high schools should have had a college education or what may fairly be reckoned as an equivalent.<sup>(22)</sup> At the same time, there are, in our elementary schools, teachers, who by reason of superior natural endowment and prolonged and specialized study, are competent to fill positions in the Chicago high schools. Although provision should be made in such cases for advance from the lower grades, this privilege should be carefully restricted by the board of education, and all who desire such promotion should be required to pass a rigid examination by the examining board. This examination should prove that the successful candidate possesses general information equal to that of a graduate of a good college, but not merely this. In addition, the candidate must evince training in mental habits, power of clear conception and of logical thinking, and ability to grasp and to assimilate ideas,—qualities which are the best results of university study. Since teaching in our high schools is specialized, the applicant for promotion should be fully able to give instruction in at least two or three kindred branches. To do this, his training and attainments must equal that of men who in addition to the college course have had a fair amount of graduate study along special lines. In view of these considerations, we recom-

requirements that can generally be accepted, that the scholarship and power gained by four years of study in advance of the pupil are not too much to be rightfully demanded, and that, as a rule, no one ought to become a teacher who has not the age and the attainments presupposed in the possessor of a high school diploma. There are differences in high schools, it is true, and a high school diploma is not a fixed standard of attainment; but in these United States it is one of the most definite and uniform standards that we possess, and varies less than college degrees vary, or than elementary schools or local standards of culture vary.”—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 1.

(22) “I will leave out of account the preparation of secondary school teachers and educational administrative officers. These should always have a college education and also a professional training, obtained, if possible, in the educational department of a college or university.”—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University*.

In order to facilitate the entrance of college graduates into public school work, the following was provided in Senate bill 615, February 24, 1889: “Section 273—Instruction of teachers in universities and colleges—If a university or college in this state (New York) maintains an educational department or teachers’ training class, and the course and period of instruction therein, so far as relates to the theory and practice, are approved by the state superintendent, a certificate or diploma issued to a graduate of such department or class, when signed by the state superintendent, has the same force and effect and entitles the holder to the same privileges as a teacher’s diploma issued by a state normal school. The state may at any time visit and inspect such an education department or training class.”

mend that there be required of those desiring high school positions, in addition to the usual examination, either

(a) EVIDENCE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, OF SUCCESSFUL TEACHING IN THE SCHOOLS OF THIS CITY FOR SIX YEARS, AND OF COLLEGIATE SCHOLARSHIP, WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE; OR

(b) THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE OF A COLLEGE APPROVED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD, WITH SATISFACTORY EVIDENCE EITHER OF NINE MONTHS' STUDY OF THE HISTORY, PRINCIPLES, AND PRACTICE OF TEACHING, OR OF THREE YEARS' SUCCESSFUL TEACHING IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS, TOGETHER WITH SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE.

In the latter instance, again, the rank of the college should be carefully considered by the examining board. In lieu of the college course in the history, principles, and practice of teaching, your commission would recommend the acceptance of satisfactory evidence of at least three years' successful experience in secondary school work.

SECTION 3.—THAT THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS BE INTRUSTED TO AN EXAMINING BOARD, MADE UP OF THE SUPERINTENDENT, ONE OF THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS SELECTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, AND THREE SPECIAL EXAMINERS; THAT THE SPECIAL EXAMINERS BE GRADUATES OF A COLLEGE OF GOOD STANDING, OR POSSESS AN EDUCATIONAL EQUIVALENT THERETO, WITH FIVE OR MORE YEARS' SUCCESSFUL EXPERIENCE AS TEACHERS, BE APPOINTED, ONE EACH YEAR, BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION, FOR A TERM OF THREE YEARS FROM AN ELIGIBLE LIST OF AT LEAST THREE TIMES THE NUMBER TO BE APPOINTED, CERTIFIED TO BY THE SUPERINTENDENT; BE NOT OTHERWISE CONNECTED WITH THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY, AND RECEIVE PROPER COMPENSATION FOR THEIR WORK.<sup>(23)</sup>

<sup>(23)</sup> If the superintendent were himself to select the members of the examining board, there would be no advantage apparent in the institution of such a board as compared with the very common method of leaving the examination to him and his assistants. The latter in many particulars would be as competent to perform this work as are the special examiners here suggested. In addition, however, to the impartiality which may be guaranteed by giving this function to men not in any way connected with the appointment of teachers, there should be gained through the examining board the advantage which lies in a different if not a broader conception of the public schools. This result cannot be expected if the superintendent directly selects the examiners, since, in that case, he would be led (it may be unconsciously) to take those who are in full sympathy with his views. His responsibility in the matter is sufficiently protected if the examiners be chosen from a properly certified list.



The arguments<sup>(24)</sup> for creating an examining board have been already suggested. In order to secure another element of impartiality in the appointment of teachers, the majority of this board should be composed of men not otherwise connected with the school system of the city. The superintendent should be chairman of this board. His presence, together with one assistant superintendent, would assist in forming a preliminary judgment at least of the capacity or fitness of the applicants. The examining board should include only graduates of a good college, who have had successful experience as teachers for a term of years. The appointment of the examining board should not be in the hands of the superintendent directly, but, as a guarantee of a suitable selection, the members should be taken from a list properly certified by him. For the sake of continuity in the work of the board of examiners, the members might well be appointed for not less than three years, one position to be filled at the end of each year. The work of the examining board will be severe, including as it should a supervision not only of examinations for entrance to the normal school<sup>(25)</sup> and graduation from it, but also of examination of applicants from outside, and the test of teachers for promotion, as hereafter suggested, and of the work of all grades.<sup>(26)</sup> Therefore, the examiners should devote their exclusive attention to this service and receive proper compensation. The existence of this board would offer, we believe, an additional advantage in the possibility of more frequent examinations for many of the purposes mentioned above.

(24) See introductory statement of this article.

(25) "Successful graduates of the city training school should be given provisional licenses to teach and should take their place on the eligible list of the city according to their scholarship and professional capacity indicated by the record of the city training school. For this purpose the city board of examiners should have authority to inspect the work of the city training school and should conduct all examinations for graduation from it, inasmuch as graduation leads to a position on the eligible list."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

(26) The examining board could powerfully affect the teaching throughout the system by arranging special examinations from time to time for the various grades. These examinations, carefully conducted, would be, at the same time, a test of the various teachers, a guidance to them in proper methods of instruction and a stimulus to keep fully abreast with current educational thought. The questions should not be planned to test primarily the industry of the pupil. They should, however, be a test of their ability to comprehend and to express, and the answers obtained should be a basis for criticism, not only of the methods employed by the teachers, but also of the general educational value of the course of study.



SECTION 4.—THAT THE APPOINTMENT OF TEACHERS, AT FIRST FOR A PROBATIONARY TERM OF TWO SUCCESSIVE YEARS, AND AFTER THAT ON GOOD BEHAVIOR AND DURING SATISFACTORY SERVICE, BE MADE BY THE SUPERINTENDENT FROM THE LIST OF THOSE WHO HOLD HIS CERTIFICATES, SUBJECT ONLY TO A VETO BY A MAJORITY OF THE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD.

Although the appointment of teachers should be made by the superintendent subject to the approval of the board, no candidate should be permanently appointed except after a probationary term of two successive years.<sup>(27)</sup> This will afford the surest test of the sustained efficiency and enthusiasm of the teacher. After such a probation satisfactorily completed, the teacher should receive a permanent appointment during satisfactory service and on good behavior, and not be subject, as at present, to a yearly election.

SECTION 5.—THAT EXPERIENCED TEACHERS, WHEN APPOINTED FROM OUTSIDE THE CITY, AFTER A PHYSICAL EXAMINATION SIMILAR TO THAT REQUIRED OF OTHER CANDIDATES, BE GIVEN CREDIT FOR SUCH EXPERIENCE IN DETERMINING THEIR GRADE IN THE SALARY SCHEDULE OF THE CITY, NOT EXCEEDING ONE YEAR FOR EACH TWO YEARS OF SUCH OUTSIDE TERM OF SERVICE; PROVIDED, THAT IN NO CASE CREDIT FOR MORE THAN FIVE YEARS BE GIVEN.

Under any schedule of salaries the pay of teachers will naturally increase with length of service, and it is only fair that teachers admitted to the Chicago schools from outside should receive credit for the successful experience that has made them desirable additions to the teaching body.<sup>(28)</sup>

(27) "My belief is that no license to teach should ever be made permanent until after successful teaching experience has been had. Therefore, as indicated above, only a provisional license should be granted to graduates of a training school; but this license should become permanent by action of the city superintendent and the board of examiners after one or more years of successful schoolroom experience."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

"Licenses to teach should be issued by the city superintendent of schools for a period of one year, which may be renewed without examination in case the work of the holder is satisfactory to the borough superintendent for two successive years. At the close of the third year of continuous successful service the city superintendent may make the license permanent. Authority to revoke any permanent license for cause shall be vested in the state superintendent of public instruction."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,081.*

(28) "We recommend that both principals and teachers be given credit for previous successful experience elsewhere, in determining the salary to be paid them."—*The George Howland Club.*

What this credit should be it is not easy to determine. As a rule, such teachers have not received as large a salary in their previous work as is paid in similar positions in our schools. To give them full allowance year for year for their work, would seem an unjust discrimination against the great body of Chicago teachers who have gained their professional training under stricter requirements and proved their efficiency under more difficult and arduous conditions. Although it is highly desirable to get efficient teachers from without<sup>(29)</sup>, yet the greater acquaintance of our teachers with the problems of the Chicago schools should give them a distinct advantage over all competitors. Recognizing the complex nature of the problem, we find no better way than to give to the examining board the determination of such credit, within the limits suggested.

SECTION 6.—THAT PROMOTIONS BE BASED ON THE PREVIOUS GOOD RECORD OF THE TEACHER AS INDICATED BY THE REPORT OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, AND ON PROGRESS MADE, BOTH IN SCHOLARSHIP AND IN TEACHING ABILITY, AS RECOGNIZED BY THE EXAMINING BOARD.

The promotion of teachers should be based on two conditions:<sup>(30)</sup> First, the success of the teacher in previous work; second, the progress which the teacher can show, both in general scholarship and teaching ability. A moderate success in a given position may justify the retention

(29) "It is well to make it possible to strengthen the force of teachers by the bringing in of capable men and women from the outside. It is well to retain and promote competent and growing teachers, but it is not well to promote those whose growth has not deserved promotion."—*David Starr Jordan, Leland Stanford University.*

"I cannot but deprecate for any school system, the policy of drawing too exclusively upon its own talent for its teaching force, for I feel sure that such a policy is a mistaken one, and if carried on too far, as it may be, the schools are almost certain to degenerate to a low grade. It too often happens under such terms that the teachers lose ambition for high service, because more or less wedded to routine methods and drift into contracted habits of thought and work. For the correction of these reactionary habits, a class of teachers educated and trained in other schools, and by other agencies than our own, is imperatively demanded by the highest needs of our school economy. The views and habits of thought entertained by our home product, and by those who come to us from other localities, naturally modify and stimulate each other and provoke a more efficient service. It seems wise, therefore, that a judicious complement of teachers from abroad be ever and anon added to the department of instruction if we hope to maintain high rank among the schools of the country."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1895.*

(30) "As regards the promotion of teachers, there should be every year a record made of the success of the teachers, said record being formed on the report of the principal of the school in which the teacher is working, and the same should be confirmed by the superintendent. From a list of the teachers

of the teacher on the pay-roll of the city, but that alone does not justify promotion either in the grade of work assigned or in salary. There is no more potent influence in raising the professional standard of a teaching body than a rational method of promotion, which offers each teacher the possibility of sure recognition and suitable reward. This is a principle which has not been, we believe, properly recognized and enforced in the administration of Chicago schools, and your commission does not know any more important and fundamental question lying distinctly within the duties of the board of education than that of drawing up a plan of promotion that will secure these results.

The record of a teacher will be judged mainly by the report of the principal and the assistant superintendent, and no promotion should be made without their recommendation. In addition to this, all promotions should be conditioned on careful examination and approval by the examining board.<sup>(31)</sup> On the recommendation of the principal and the assistant superintendent, and on the expressed approval of the examining board, the superintendent should be empowered to assign the teacher to the new rank or to a higher grade in the salary schedule.

who have attained the highest rank in (a) ability to instruct, (b) ability to govern in an efficient and humane manner, (c) other good qualities of character and zeal in promoting the best interests of the schools, promotions may be recommended."—*William T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education.*

"Concerning the promotion of teachers, the first idea that seems to strike me is, that in our present system there is no such thing as the promotion of a teacher other than that worked by the flight of time (except her election to a higher office). I judge it to be the almost unanimous opinion that this is entirely wrong, and that a plan should be put in operation by which merit shall be recognized. I think it is the well-nigh unanimous opinion that instead of leveling all salaries, more classes of salaries should obtain, graduated to the work and qualifications required of the teacher and that promotion to the higher classes should be somewhat competitive in character."—*A Chicago Principal.*

(31) In the desire to secure a competent teaching force, it should not be forgotten that there is danger of enforcing unnecessary limitations. Experience has shown that too frequent examinations are rather an impediment than a help, since they turn the attention of the teacher from his regular work, and thus lessen his efficiency. Once admitted to the profession with proofs of scholarship and special training and after a term of probation, the teacher should, as already recommended, receive a permanent certificate. Any additional examinations or tests required should be made of those only who apply for promotion to positions for which much higher qualifications are required.

SECTION 7.—THAT THE, PRESENT SCHEDULE OF THE SALARIES OF THE CITY UNDER RECENT CHANGES BE RECOGNIZED AS NOT PROPERLY PROPORTIONED TO THE VARIOUS POSITIONS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM, AS PROVIDING IN MANY GROUPS SALARIES SO HIGH THAT THE EFFICIENCY OF THE SCHOOLS IN OTHER PARTICULARS CANNOT UNDER THE LIMITATIONS OF THE LAW GOVERNING THE TAX LEVY, BE ADEQUATELY SECURED, AND AS LIABLE, THEREFORE, TO CAUSE EITHER FINANCIAL EMBARRASSMENT TO THE BOARD OR SUDDEN AND PREJUDICIAL RETRENCHMENT, UNLESS THE SCHEDULE BE READJUSTED AT AN EARLY TIME.

The delicate nature of this question has already been intimated. A study of the salaries now paid in Chicago and a comparison with those of other cities of approximately the same size, justify the statement that the board of education has not carefully proportioned the pay of various positions.<sup>(32)</sup> Your commission is impressed with the importance of the teacher's work and the necessity of making this profession attractive both to men and to women of ability, training, and experience. We are, however, fully persuaded that public interests demand a more systematic treatment of the question of salaries, and we believe that in the long run the teachers themselves will be benefited if the salaries are placed on a more rational basis.<sup>(33)</sup> Therefore, we recommend that after a thorough examination of existing conditions the schedule of salaries be revised with the purpose of adjusting each salary to the responsibility of the position, to the proved efficiency and length of service of the teacher and to the total of the salary schedule of the city.<sup>(34)</sup>

SECTION 8.—THAT A SCHEDULE OF SALARIES BE ADOPTED WHICH WILL RECOGNIZE DISTINCTIONS IN REGARD TO THE GRADE OR SUBJECT IN WHICH THE TEACHER GIVES INSTRUCTION, THE TERM OF SERVICE OF THE TEACHER, THE SUCCESS ALREADY ACHIEVED, AND WELL PROVED ADVANCE IN SCHOLARSHIP AND TEACHING ABILITY.

The board of education has ignored in its recent changes an important principle in the adjustment of salaries. The wholesale leveling of salaries

<sup>(32)</sup> For discussion of salary question, see Appendix A.

<sup>(33)</sup> "I believe there should be some gradation of salaries with reference to the longer hours, the more laborious preparation, and the more scholarly ability in upper grades. This is not saying that little children do not require the best teachers, but as most of our schools are organized, the primary teacher does not have, in respect to discipline and required study, the strain imposed upon teachers in the higher grades."—S. T. Dutton, *Superintendent, Brookline (Mass.)*

<sup>(34)</sup> See section 8 of this article.

throughout the elementary schools, so that the only basis of discrimination is length of service, sacrifices another effective means of raising the professional standard.<sup>(35)</sup> Your commission believes in employing for each grade of the elementary schools the best teachers available, but it is not at all clear that the teachers of each grade are entitled to the same pay. Some grades, notably the first and second, demand the possession on the part of the teacher of qualifications not to be found in the majority of those giving instruction. In other grades, particularly in the seventh and eighth, a more liberal education, wider reading, and more general knowledge are needed, and greater care is necessary in preparation for recitations, as well as more labor in carrying out the course of study. It is a matter of frequent complaint that, with equal salaries for all grades, teachers are not inclined to make the extra effort in preparation and to perform the

(35) "The present schedule is based upon the trade union principle of equal compensation for varying degrees of efficiency. Such is calculated to encourage poor work and to discourage special ability. The only thing taken into consideration is length of service, and the higher salaries are reached automatically by the simple process of remaining continuously at work for a given number of years. It ought not to be difficult to devise a better system than this. To make promotions depend upon examinations would probably be inadvisable, because examinations throw very little light upon teaching efficiency, but they might well be made to depend on the recommendation of the principals, superintendents and other school officers having opportunities for observation of the teachers at work. These are the persons who really know the relative abilities of teachers, and their knowledge might most usefully be brought to bear upon promotions."—*A Chicago High School Principal*.

"We believe that the present tendency toward leveling the salaries of all teachers regardless of the duties required of them, and of the educational qualifications requisite to a proper discharge of these duties, is wrong. We recommend that the salaries paid teachers depend on; first, length of time of service, and second, the grade or group of grades taught. We would call attention to the fact that a higher grade of scholarship is required to teach the upper grades than the lower. More work outside of school hours is required, and the government of these is more difficult. This condition holds true from the first grade to the twelfth, and we believe that salaries should be modified accordingly, perhaps making an exception of the teacher who is kept in first grade, because she can start the pupils right, as against one who remains in first grade because she is unable to teach second. Teachers of upper grammar grades need a broad knowledge of American and foreign history, literature, science, algebra, geometry, latin, music and art, not needed by teachers of lower grades. To get this knowledge, she is obliged to spend more time and money in study, and we believe that this ought to increase her pay. We believe that promotions to higher grades with increased pay ought to be somewhat competitive in character."—*The George Howland Club*.

additional labor incident to the more advanced instruction of the elementary schools. Primary teachers fully qualified for work in the upper grades, often refuse advancement to the sixth, seventh or eighth, and it is frequently difficult to secure good talent for the higher classes. This is in itself an argument for relatively higher salaries in these positions.<sup>(36)</sup>

The salary question is so involved that it is properly a subject for determination by experts, but your commission has no hesitation in expressing its belief in the validity of the distinction here made. Salaries should be apportioned not merely on the basis of the length of service, but also on a basis of the relative difficulty of the instruction in the different grades, and most certainly on the degree of efficiency already shown by the teacher<sup>(37)</sup>, and on evidence shown of increased scholarship.

SECTION 9.—THAT ALL SUITABLE MEANS BE USED TO PUT A LARGER PROPORTION OF MEN TEACHERS IN THE HIGHER GRADES OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AS POSITIONS THEREIN MAY HEREAFTER BECOME VACANT; AND, IF IT BE FOUND NECESSARY TO THE SECURING OF THIS END, THAT HIGHER SALARIES BE PROVIDED FOR MEN THAN FOR WOMEN IN THESE GRADES.<sup>(38)</sup>

The need of more men in public school work is universally recognized, and is far more pressing in Chicago than in the other large cities of the

<sup>(36)</sup> "The result of the present system is, that many teachers, fully capable of taking a higher grade, ask for a lower primary, in which there is the smallest demand for scholarship, and less need of preparatory work. The laudable ambition to advance from grade to grade is dulled, the teacher ceases her effort and her study for higher positions: our work is crippled, the incitement to progress annihilated, and our schools and pupils and our city are the sufferers."—*George Howland—Superintendent's Report Chicago Board of Education, 1889.*

"I recently made inquiries among the primary teachers of this school to find out if any was willing to take a grammar division another year and found not one willing, while on the other hand, there are several of our grammar teachers who would like a second or first grade division if an opening is found. There has not been a grammar grade vacancy filled by a primary grade teacher in this school for six years, but each time such a place is to be filled it has been necessary to find a teacher from outside source."—*A Chicago Principal.*

<sup>(37)</sup> "Each school board shall have power to adopt by-laws fixing the salaries of the borough and the assistant superintendents, of principals, and branch principals, and of all other members of the supervising and teaching staff, and such salaries shall be regulated by merit, by the grade of class taught, by the length of service or by the experience in teaching of the incumbent in charge, or by such a combination of these considerations as the school board may deem proper."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1.091*

<sup>(38)</sup> "One of the divisions of this subject which is attracting much attention, provoking much discussion and bringing into view a startling array of statistics, is the ratio of women to men in the public schools of the United States. While this discussion pertains with special significance to the common schools, it is a factor which cannot be eliminated in the solution of the high school problem, and enters with irritating effect into our reflections as to the quantity and quality of those credentials, physical, intellectual, and moral, which the welfare of our secondary schools demand of every teacher. Go where you will, you hear it said:



country.<sup>(39)</sup> This is apparent in many ways. The small number of boys in our secondary schools as compared, for example, with Boston, is a striking and almost ominous fact<sup>(40)</sup>, which is to be attributed in part to the predominance of women teachers in the elementary schools. Indeed, the proportion of boys to girls in our high schools is actually decreasing. This indicates that to a certain degree the public school system is not properly fulfilling its function, and one inevitable result will be the loss of public sympathy and support. Not only do comparatively few boys enter the high school, but large numbers leave the elementary schools before completing the work of the eighth, seventh, or even sixth grade. This has been attributed by many careful observers among other things to the small and decreasing proportion of men teachers.<sup>(41)</sup> If this explana-

'We need more men, but we cannot afford the salaries they demand. We do not blame them for refusing to accept our small stipend, and therefore we are compelled to employ women.' This is a true statement and as sad as degenerating and as degrading as it is true."—*Editorial, in School Review, March, 1896.*

(39) "There are periods in the school life of a boy when he needs contact with the rugged and forceful personality of men who have arrived at the maturity of their powers. There is no reason why this contact should be reserved for the high school or the college. Only a very small percentage of boys reaches the high school, and a still smaller proportion receives the benefit of college training. Even in the high schools, the number of male instructors grows smaller year by year."—*Editorial, Chicago Times-Herald, July 19, 1898.*

"The influence exerted on the minds and hearts of children by men and women teachers may be equal in degree, but certainly is not of the same kind, hence the schools need both in more equal ratio than at present. Children instinctively recognize the difference in the sex influence, and respond to it accordingly. I have no question that our schools are to-day suffering for a lack of men in our teaching force."—*D. R. Cameron, Ex-President, Chicago Board of Education.*

"Since my connection with the board of education the number of teachers in Chicago has increased from about seventeen hundred to three thousand. At all times the fair sex has predominated to a considerable extent, but at no time has this been so apparent as during the last few years. If an extra effort had been made to drive out male teachers and fill their places by women, the success could not have been better. Whenever a male principal resigned or his place was made vacant for some reason, it was filled by a lady. In my opinion it is necessary that the more sturdy character of men should be allowed to have an influence upon our growing generation, and while it may be necessary that the gentle hand of women should guide and lead our little ones, I believe that the more firm hand of men should be employed in teaching the older ones and take part in the moulding and shaping of their character."—*Louis Nettelhorst, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1891.*

(40) "Of the total of seven thousand seven hundred and fifty pupils in our high schools at the close of September, 1895, there were one thousand nine hundred and seventy-four boys and five thousand seven hundred and seventy-six girls, or 26 per cent boys and 74 per cent girls, a loss of 5 per cent from last year, when there was 31 per cent boys and 69 per cent girls."—*A. G. Lane, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*

(41) "The gradual disappearance of the 'old school master,' whose vigorous and wholesome personality was such an important factor in the development of

tion be well founded, and we believe it is, the necessity of attracting more men to the teaching body is self-evident.

Your commission would not be understood as arguing against the employment of women in the teaching force. We recognize the value of their work and believe that in many grades of our elementary schools from the kindergarten up, a woman teacher is, other things being equal, to be preferred to a man. We hold, however, distinctly, that neither sex should greatly predominate, if the most symmetrical results are to be obtained, and we believe that the patrons and warm supporters of our public schools, men and women alike, unite in a desire for the employment of more men teachers. How these can be secured is not easy to point out. If it is true, as has been openly stated, however, that in our elementary schools of two applicants equally competent a woman stands a better chance of appointment than a man, the need of a change in our policy is obvious enough. If, on the other hand, men are rare in the teaching body because sufficient pay is not offered to attract such as are competent, then the salaries of men should be advanced to the point at which they can be secured.

The paying of higher salaries to men than to women of the same ability and training is not an unjust discrimination. The superior physical endurance of a man makes him, relatively speaking, more valuable in the school system. Moreover, this question is a plain case of supply and demand, and the experience of our American cities clearly indicates the necessity of paying larger salaries for men, if a fair proportion of them is to be brought into the teaching body. The public will not begrudge the additional expense necessary to infuse this much needed element into the school system. Your commission is inclined to believe, also, that much can be accomplished in this direction simply by the adoption of a rational plan of promotion by which the prospect of regular advance from the lower positions will be held out to those best prepared for the teacher's work and most zealous in the performance of their duties. Young men of college education and high professional attainments can, we believe, be thus attracted even to the elementary grades.

SECTION 10.—THAT THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE PRINCIPAL AND THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT BE ACCEPTED AS SUFFICIENT REASON FOR CHANGE OF ASSIGNMENT BY THE SUPERINTENDENT OF A TEACHER ON THE GROUND OF INEFFICIENCY.

character and individuality in young men, is certainly an element of weakness in our modern school system."—*Editorial, Chicago Times-Herald, July 19, 1898.*

SECTION II.—THAT AFTER TWO SUCH CHANGES IN ASSIGNMENT, AND UPON THE RECOMMENDATION FOR A THIRD CHANGE BY THE PRINCIPAL AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT, THE TEACHER SHALL BE RETIRED FROM THE SCHOOL SYSTEM OF THE CITY BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, UNLESS HIS ACTION BE DISAPPROVED BY A MAJORITY VOTE OF ALL THE MEMBERS OF THE BOARD NOT LATER THAN THE SECOND MEETING AFTER THE REPORT IS MADE THERETO.

Just as it rests with the superintendent to make promotions on the recommendation of the principal and the respective assistant, so on the same authority and after proper test of the teacher under different conditions the latter should be retired from the service if adjudged incompetent.<sup>(42)</sup> All arguments that have been advanced to concentrate in the superintendent the responsibility for the educational system of the city, apply with equal force to this portion of his duties. With proper care in guarding admissions to the teaching body, and with careful supervision of the work, the necessity for such action should be reduced to a minimum. At the same time, when occasion does arise, this power should be firmly used by the superintendent, and his decision should be final, with the restriction of being subject to disapproval by a majority vote of the members of the board.

(42) "The superintendent shall have the power to dismiss any teacher when her work is deficient or her discipline unsatisfactory, the same to be certified to by the principal of the school, the district superintendent and a majority of the board of superintendents. All appointments under a partial certificate shall be temporary and whenever a teacher is rendering unsatisfactory service the superintendent shall have the power to dismiss such teacher upon the recommendation of the principal of the school, and the district superintendent, provided such teacher has had at least two trials. All recommendations shall be in writing."—*A Chicago Superintendent.*

## The Elementary Schools

### ARTICLE V

In respect to the elementary schools, your Commission respectfully recommends:

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION GIVE CAREFUL CONSIDERATION TO THE GENERAL COMPLAINT OF THE LOSS OF TIME AND WASTE OF EFFORT IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, DUE TO THE NEEDLESS REPETITION OF SUBJECTS IN DIFFERENT GRADES, AND TO A CONSEQUENT LOSS OF INTELLECTUAL POWER IN THE CHILD, WHICH RESULTS FROM SPENDING EIGHT YEARS ON A COURSE OF STUDY THAT MIGHT FAIRLY, IN MANY CASES, BE COVERED IN LESS THAN SEVEN;

SECTION 2.—THAT IN CONSIDERATION OF THE ABOVE, THE SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS ASSISTANTS BE INSTRUCTED CAREFULLY TO CONSIDER AND TO REVISE THE COURSE OF STUDY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, IN ORDER THAT THE WORK OF EACH GRADE MAY BE SIMPLER, MORE PROGRESSIVE AND BETTER UNIFIED; THAT THE WORK OF THE DIFFERENT GRADES, ESPECIALLY OF THE EIGHTH AND NINTH, I. E., THE FIRST YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, MAY BE MORE CLOSELY CORRELATED AND REARRANGED, WITH DUE REFERENCE TO THE SPECIAL STUDIES INTRODUCED IN RECENT YEARS; AND PARTICULARLY TO THE GRADUAL INTRODUCTION, ELSEWHERE RECOMMENDED, OF SOME FORM OF CONSTRUCTIVE WORK IN EACH GRADE OF ALL SCHOOLS;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY BE SO READJUSTED AS READILY TO PERMIT OF AT LEAST SEMI-ANNUAL PROMOTION FROM GRADE TO GRADE;

SECTION 4.—THAT A KINDERGARTEN, OPEN TO CHILDREN FROM FOUR TO SIX YEARS OF AGE, BE ESTABLISHED AS SOON AS POSSIBLE IN CONNECTION WITH EACH SCHOOL IN THE MORE THICKLY POPULATED DISTRICTS OF THE CITY, AND ULTIMATELY IN EVERY SCHOOL.

The suggestions which your commission ventures to make in regard to the course of study of the elementary schools, should not be construed as indicating that this city is inferior to other large communities in its system of public instruction. On the contrary, many of the difficulties here por-

trayed are the direct result of an earnest, progressive spirit and of a desire to give the children of Chicago the best education that can be furnished at public expense. The city deserves great praise for its generous support of public schools, and those who have directed the educational system have acted wisely in infusing from time to time new studies into the programme. This has led, however, to an overcrowding of the course, which is a source of temporary embarrassment to both pupils and teachers, and undoubtedly the present situation demands careful consideration.

The deeper questions of method of instruction, your commission has not felt competent to treat. Improvement in this direction has been constant and there is good reason to believe that the line of progress at present is sound and will be maintained. We feel, indeed, reluctance in attempting any review of the course of study. The responsibility for this is divided between the board of education and the superintendent of schools. The board of education, acting for the people and according to their desires, has the authority to determine what shall be taught in the public schools; furthermore, it alone allots the amounts of money to be spent in the different divisions of the system. Within the lines laid down by the board, the superintendent should have the initiative in suggesting the number of teachers necessary for instruction in different subjects and the determination of all methods to be employed; on him and his assistants the construction of the course of study falls. The recommendations here made do not affect, except in the question of kindergartens, the duties of the board. The reason for making them lies in the apparent neglect by the force of supervision to work out a coherent and unified plan of instruction—due, we believe, in large measure to the excessive requirements heretofore made of the superintendent and his assistants in purely clerical work. If they were freed to a considerable extent from duties which might well be assigned to clerks, they would have more time and energy to devote to thorough supervision of their respective districts and to the larger problems of municipal education.

One of these problems is the course of study which, more than any other question that has been brought to our attention, is a matter for consideration and determination by experts. Only men who with a liberal education and careful training unite wide experience and thoughtful study of what the public demands from the elementary schools and of what it is possible to give in them, can speak with final authority on this topic. We have noted, however, what seems to be a very general situation in school affairs and also tendencies that are manifest in the school systems of many cities.

The fact that first attracts notice, when we consider the present status in Chicago, is the great improvement in our public schools in recent years which has made it possible to accomplish more within a given period than was formerly the case. This improvement is marked with respect to the teachers themselves, who, through a broader education and a sounder training are better fitted to give instruction, and who by a more thorough knowledge of the powers of children<sup>(1)</sup> and through better methods, have considerably shortened the time needed to accomplish certain definite educational results in their work. Another movement tending in the same direction, is the equipment of school rooms with various appliances that have largely facilitated elementary as well as secondary instruction in our larger cities. The benefits, however, which might accrue from this improvement of educational conditions, have not, we think, been fully realized. As much space is given now as formerly in the course of study to many subjects which, due to the changes just mentioned, it would be possible to teach adequately in a considerably shorter time.<sup>(2)</sup> The waste of effort

(1) No element in the preparation of the teacher has been more strongly insisted upon in recent years than the importance of child study. In this particular, the normal schools of our country are following the example of continental schools and are working out with marked results the ideas of leading educationists. Chicago is fortunate in the possession of a normal school, in which the importance of this work has been fully appreciated, and in which careful training has been given in this line.

"Modern educational thought emphasizes the opinion that the child, not the subject of study, is the guide to the teacher's efforts. To know the child is of paramount importance. How to know the child must be an important item of instruction to the teacher in training. The child must be studied as to his physical, mental and moral condition. Is he in good health? Are his senses of sight and hearing normal, or in what degree abnormal? What is his temperament? Which of his faculties seem weak or dormant. Is he eye-minded or ear-minded? What are his powers of attention? How far is his normal nature developed, and what are his tendencies? By what tests can the degree of difference between bright and dull children be estimated? To study effectively and observingly these and similar questions respecting children is a high art. No common sense power of discerning human nature is sufficient; though common sense and sympathy go a long way in that study. Weighing, measuring, elaborate investigation requiring apparatus and laboratory methods are for experts, not teachers in training. Above all, it must ever be remembered that the child is to be studied as a personality and not as an object to be weighed and analyzed."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 6.

(2) "I turn to the desirable reduction in the volume and variety of the present studies. The first reduction should, I believe, be made in arithmetic. I find that it is very common in programmes of the course to allot to arithmetic from one-eighth to one-sixth of the whole school time for nine or ten years. A small book ordinarily contains all the arithmetic that anybody needs to know, indeed much more than most of us ever use. On grounds of utility, geometry and physics have stronger claims than any part of arithmetic beyond the elements, and for mental training they are also to be preferred. By the contraction of arithmetic, room is made for algebra and geometry. Moreover, the attainments of the pupil in arithmetic are not diminished by the introduction of the new studies, but rather



involved in the needless repetition of subjects in different grades, is not the only evil to be met. For a child to go over and over again the same portions of arithmetic<sup>(3)</sup> and geography, even from a considerably modified point of view, is not only a loss of time and effort, but also a distinct detriment to his interest and intellectual power. The course of study could be revised to advantage by a reduction in the amount of time assigned to different subjects. To this end the work in different grades should be simplified with proper care for natural and progressive sequence, and greater unity should be secured among the subjects of instruction. This is especially necessary at the present time. Even before it became evident that more work could be done within the school life of the child, there was a tendency to enlarge the course.<sup>(4)</sup> New studies have been successively introduced in order to develop and train the child in many directions not hitherto attempted. The charge has been made that these changes have resulted from the increased requirements on the part of higher institutions, and have led to pushing down into the elementary schools subjects that have hitherto been reserved for the secondary. The natural inference is

increased. The algebraic way of solving a problem is often more intelligent than the arithmetical, and mensuration is easier when founded on a good knowledge of geometry than it is with a lack of that foundation. The three subjects together are vastly more interesting than arithmetic, pursued through nine consecutive years. In many schools the subject of grammar still fills too large a place on the programme, although great improvement has taken place in the treatment of this abstruse subject which is so unsuitable for children. Geography is now taught chiefly as a memory study from books and flat atlases, and much time is given to committing to memory masses of facts which cannot be retained and which are of little value if retained. By grouping physical geography with natural history, and political geography with history, and by providing proper apparatus for teaching geography, time can be saved, and yet a place made for much new and interesting geographical instruction."—*Charles W. Eliot, President Harvard University, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1892, p. 617.*

(3) "Your committee believes that with the right methods and a wise use of time in preparing the arithmetic lesson in and out of school five years are sufficient for the study of mere arithmetic—the five years beginning with the second school year and ending with the close of the sixth year; and that the seventh year should be given to the algebraic method of dealing with those problems that involve difficulties in the transformation of quantitative indirect functions into numerical or direct quantitative data."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 39.*

"The sifting of the course of study in grades is greatly to be encouraged. I believe that arithmetic takes too much time by one-third. Better work in less time."—*D. L. Kiehle, University of Minnesota.*

(4) It matters very little to us what was the origin of the common school; it sprang up from the needs of the age, and was suited to the wants of society, but the furnishing of the intelligent citizen of to-day for his private and public duties is very different from that of his ancestor two and a half centuries ago; and the scope of the common school has broadened into that of the public school, upon whose wise and successful development depends so largely the hope, the welfare and the perpetuity of our institutions, our government, our nation."—*George Howland, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1889.*

that these subjects have in some instances no proper place in the elementary course. Your commission, however, while recognizing a degree of truth in the first statement, believes that the broadening of the common school work has come more largely from a better appreciation of the educational opportunity afforded in the first years of the child's life, and a determination on the part of the public to make the training offered as rich and fruitful as possible. The extension of the course of study has been, we believe, along proper lines in the introduction of many branches.<sup>(5)</sup> So far, however, this extension has not been accompanied by any adequate recognition of the necessity of connecting these new subjects with those formerly included in the course; and in the Chicago schools to-day we do not find that essential unity which can be secured by a thorough and, if necessary, wholesale revision of the course.

Not only is this unity lacking in the different grades, but there is a notable break in sequence between the grades.<sup>(6)</sup> This condition has been partly

(5) Algebra, for example, properly taught, is recognized as a suitable subject for the seventh and eighth grade, at the same time supplementing the earlier work in arithmetic, and affording a very good substitute for some of the higher and more technical instruction in the latter study.

"The proposed seventh-grade algebra must use letters for the unknown quantities and retain the numerical form of the known quantities, using letters for these very rarely, except to exhibit the general form of solution, or what, if stated in words, becomes a so-called 'rule' in arithmetic. This species of algebra has the character of an introduction or transitional step to algebra proper. The proposition of your committee is intended to remedy the two evils already named: First, to aid the pupils in the elementary school to solve by a higher method the more difficult problems that now find place in advanced arithmetic; and, secondly, to prepare the pupil for a thorough course in pure algebra in the secondary school."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 40.

(6) "Nothing is more desirable than to try to get rid of the gulf that has often separated the high school and the elementary school. In many cases it has amounted to a caste feeling which has prevented teachers above and below from any helpful co-operation. In numerous instances the teachers of grammar and high schools never meet for conference. Permit me to say that both in New Haven and here in Brookline I have always had regular monthly meetings, in which teachers of all grades have come together and considered questions of general interest, of which there are so many. In Brookline, where the number of teachers has permitted it, we have had very free and informal discussions. These have helped bring out a unity of feeling and plan which has been marked in our work. Heads of departments and teachers generally have been encouraged to visit not only other schools of their own grades but those above and below, and many other means have been employed to bring about co-operation. We have found it very helpful in securing continuity through the grades to give teachers in the high schools a sort of supervision over special subjects in the grades below; for example, our teacher of art, domestic science, sewing, physics, chemistry, physical culture and biology in the high school had had the supervision in these subjects in the grades below, and have usually met the teachers in

the result of introducing many new subjects without fully considering the place that each should fill in the school course, noticeably in the case of nature study. It is true also of the instruction in manual training, which has been added within the last two years. From the evidence presented to your commission, we are inclined to the opinion that instead of these studies being an additional element of unity in the school programme, as they should be, the introduction of them has tended rather toward disorganization.<sup>(7)</sup> The mistake here suggested has led to the additional difficulty of overcrowding to a considerable extent the course of study, thus causing what seems undue criticism of those branches, for we are thoroughly convinced that, properly connected with the rest of the course, they will facilitate at the same time that they enrich elementary instruction.<sup>(8)</sup>

groups once a month. They have in most cases been able to see something of the work actually done. This is not only in the interest of economy but it knits together the high school and the lower schools closely and gives intelligence and unity to the whole system.”—*S. T. Dutton, Superintendent, Brookline, Mass.*

(7) “We should set about a reorganization of our whole school curriculum, and by a carefully devised plan, secure the orderly progress of the child’s culture from the kindergarten age through an elementary course suited to his expanding mental and bodily powers, and then through a course of scientific education—not distinct from but supplementary to the former—until as a high school graduate, he should possess, as far as nature has endowed him and opportunity favored, a general preparation for the duties of life. In such a course, manual training should enter at the proper time, and proceed through an elementary, if not through a scientific stage, to the end that a trained hand may accompany a disciplined intellect.”—*Ray Greene Huling, in Education, September, 1883.*

(8) The course of study has not yet been broadened to correspond fully to expert demand.

“In my judgment the schools of this city are in a deplorable condition of dry rot, owing to the extreme poverty of subject matter offered by the curriculum. The absolutely fundamental thing in education, especially early education, if it is to lay a firm foundation for scholarship and power, is that the pupil shall be brought into actual contact with material things, vast in amount and rich in variety. As a corollary to this proposition, it may be assumed that, to this end, the resources of the pupil’s immediate environment should be drained to their utmost.

“The published ‘Outline of Course of Study’ now provided for the schools is absolutely colorless as regards the rich and educative environment of the pupils. Its lusterless character would unfit it for a school situated in the most meager surroundings; but for our children and our teachers, environed by strong influences that converge upon us from the ends of the earth, it is unusually uninteresting and repellant. It is safe to say that if the children knew beforehand what it contains for them—or rather what it lacks—the truant list, already large, would be enormously increased. If our schools are to retain their hold upon the pupils, and if they are to enlist the most enlightened efforts of the teachers, the

One of the most difficult questions in the administration of common schools relates to the promotion of pupils. The careful grading which is feasible in large cities, and which has increased the possibilities of instruction, has a tendency to become too iron-clad to make sufficient allowance for varying degrees of capacity and industry in pupils.<sup>(9)</sup> It is manifestly

course of study must strongly reflect the strength and inspiration of our present life.

"Among the recommendations that I should like to urge are the following :

"1. That the course of study shall be revised annually in order to embody as far as possible all that the growth of the city, the expansion of our school system, and the development of our teachers may require.

"No instruction to-day pretends to be governed by a fixed formula. A course of study one year old is an anachronism. An intelligent teacher will revise to shreds and tatters within a year the best course of study ever devised. I protest against the dead type that now stands as a shield to the poor teacher and a barrier to the good one.

"2. That the preparation of the course of study shall be in the hands of the superintendent, his assistants and a representative committee of teachers, appointed by the superintendent. The work of the committee shall be conducted through sub-committees, each reporting to the entire committee at least three times a year upon the course for the following year.

"3. That the committee through its sub-committees shall make an exhaustive study of the city and its surroundings from the standpoint of educative material, and arrange the results under the heads: Natural, Scientific, Industrial, Commercial and Cultural. From these central and initial points of interest and experience the course of study should direct the investigation of the teachers and the studies of the pupils outward in every direction into the domains of human activity, both present and past.

"4. That definite provisions be made whereby teachers may visit with their pupils within regular school hours, all the public institutions and private enterprises that may be accessible that will furnish material for study. To this end, the committee on 'Course of Study' should develop as rapidly as possible a system of manuals embodying hints to the teachers and notes on the important features of the places visited. These manuals should be working educational guides to the art galleries, public libraries, great manufacturing establishments, wholesale houses, public parks, museums, and the natural features of the city and its vicinity."—*Wilbur S. Jackman, Chicago Normal School.*

(9) "At points in the course of study tests should be applied which shall determine the *status* of the pupil—first as to his mastery of the topics passed over—and secondly, as to his relative standing with others of his class. These tests must be solely in the interest of the pupil and never for the benefit of the teacher. Properly applied, they furnish the pupil with knowledge of his present acquirements, and serve as a stimulus in future acquisition. They should not be of regular occurrence, at stated intervals, but at any time when the good of the pupil seems to demand them, either for information as to his present standing or for spur to his ambition. They may touch but a single topic, as in weekly or monthly reviews, or they may embrace the whole range of topics as in examinations for promotion from grade to grade. The examinations for promotions

wrong that children failing to carry one study of a given grade should be retarded to the extent of a full year in their promotion to the next.<sup>(10)</sup> Much consideration has been given to this matter in the Chicago schools, and considerable latitude has been allowed the principals and the teachers. In many cases children have been permitted to advance at the discretion of the principal, and this has been to a degree a satisfactory solution of the difficulty.<sup>(11)</sup> The suggestion, however, has been made to your com-

should differ from reviews only in the extent of the review and in the number of topics reviewed. No subject has attracted more attention during the last two years than that of gradation of schools. It is claimed that the graded system cripples the advancement of pupils in that it prescribes a uniform rate of progress for pupils of different degrees of ability, and determines this uniform rate by the ability of those who possess the least mental activity. It is further claimed that it deprives the pupils of the best labors of their teachers, since the teachers are not at liberty to use their individuality, but must work after some uniform plan prescribed by some higher authority. Still further it is claimed that the graded system demands certain Procrustean tests in order to secure advancement."—*J. L. Pickard, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1875.*

(10) "One must go over the entire year's course because he is poor in algebra. Another failed in Latin, etc. Scholarship does not make the man. Enrich our course of instruction as much as possible, and give each pupil an opportunity to take out of it according to his capacity."—*A Chicago Principal.*

(11) This plan was formerly followed in Chicago to a much greater extent and with conspicuous success. The conditions offered at that time by a smaller school system may have rendered it more feasible. It is, however, strongly urged to-day by leading educational authorities. The following quotation indicates the method of its application in Chicago more than twenty years ago:

"To those who wonder how we can promote by classes or by grades at any time in the year, and without regard to promotions in grades above, it is sufficient to say that our room limits have no relation whatever to grade limits. The pressure for room is always from below, while withdrawals from school are almost invariably from above. Thus frequent opportunity is given for transfer upward, but it is not at all essential to promotion from grade to grade that such opportunity for transfer be available. It sometimes occurs that the teacher of a room carries her pupil through two grades before an opportunity for transfer comes. Sometimes the pressure from below for vacant space above takes away the pupils of a teacher before half the work of a grade is completed. Transfers from room to room are made when vacancies occur. Promotions from grade to grade in study are made when the pupils have completed the work of their grade. And right here comes the criticism: 'This course must involve frequent change of teachers.' In exceptional cases it is true, but the exceptions are found in the lowest grades from which pupils are passed upward to make room for the crowd of applicants below. Even in these cases the chances are about equal that the transfer will be from a poorer to a better teacher, and in cases where equal ability exists, the feeling on the part of the child that he is promoted is an incentive to greater effort. But in the main, change of teachers under this flexible system is no more frequent than under the system of uniform time for promotion, with a single exception to be noticed hereafter. The time required to pass through any grade is for the average pupil a constant quantity—six months, eight months, or ten months. The time the pupil spends with the teacher is the same, whether the grade be entered in September or in November, or March. The time of promotion has nothing whatever to do with the length of time the pupil remains under the same teacher. In the course of eight years, about the time required to complete our primary and grammar courses, ten



mission, and we are inclined to look upon it with favor, that the course of study be arranged so as to permit of at least semi-annual promotion.

In the recommendation which is made in regard to the establishment of additional kindergartens, your commission believes that it is acting in accord not only with the general tendency in American cities, but also with the evident needs of the public school situation in Chicago, and with the hearty concurrence of all those associated in any capacity with our school system.<sup>(12)</sup>

In line with what has been set forth, your commission recommends:

changes are probable. The number of changes is the same whether the changes be made at the beginning, in the middle, or at any other time of the school year. In the extreme case of annual promotion, changes are made as often as promotion occurs, which is once each year and at a fixed time. No provision is made for exceptionally bright classes, or exceptionally excellent teachers, making it possible to pass a grade in less than a prescribed time. Right here the flexible system has decided advantage, and this is the exception alluded to above. Many instances have occurred in our schools of the passing of whole classes through two grades in the time allotted to the completion of one. Many individual instances may be cited of pupils who have completed three grades in the time allotted to one—without injury to themselves and with profit to the classes through which they have passed. Within the limits of a course of study requiring eight years for its completion by the average pupil, we have twenty-eight classes varying in distance from one month or two months in the very lowest grade, to three months or five months in the highest grades. Pupils failing in promotion when examined with the highest class in a grade, fall back in their course but a little time, since the class into which they drop is but a short time in the rear. With the knowledge of this fact before the examiner, he is not tempted to put forward those poorly prepared, as he might in sympathy do, if the interval was a year or even six months. The good of the individual pupil may be best subserved by a little more thorough preparation. The discouragement to those who fail is far less when the hope of another trial is not long deferred. A pupil absent for a month or two on account of sickness finds a class at the point reached by his class at the time of leaving. He is not subjected to the mortification of going back several months in his work, nor under the necessity of overtaxing his strength that he may make up lost studies. The steps from class to class are so easily taken that many pupils are encouraged to try for more rapid advancement than they would think of attempting if the work of six months or a year must be anticipated. The advantages of gradation and classification are too apparent to need further discussion—and such flexibility as prevails in our system and the system of St. Louis, which is nearly allied to ours, certainly reduces to a minimum the danger of injury to individual pupils.”—*J. L. Pickard, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1875.*

(12) The school law of Illinois should be revised to permit boards of education to establish kindergartens, without requiring, at least in large cities, a popular vote on the question.

“We endorse the kindergarten and recommend its more general introduction, but believe there should be two lessons from two to two and a half hours each, held daily under the same teachers with different pupils, the teachers being placed on the same salary as the primary teachers.”—*The George Howland Club.*

“The kindergarten should be part of the school system.”—*Ella F. Young Club.*



SECTION I.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION GIVE CAREFUL CONSIDERATION TO THE GENERAL COMPLAINT OF THE LOSS OF TIME AND WASTE OF EFFORT IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, DUE TO THE NEEDLESS REPEITION OF SUBJECTS IN DIFFERENT GRADES, AND TO A CONSEQUENT LOSS OF INTELLECTUAL POWER IN THE CHILD, WHICH RESULTS FROM SPENDING EIGHT YEARS ON A COURSE OF STUDY THAT MIGHT FAIRLY, IN MANY CASES, BE COVERED IN LESS THAN SEVEN ;

That the course of study can be rearranged in accordance with these recommendations is vouched for by those best acquainted with the Chicago schools. Your commission does not feel that it comes within the scope of its report to specify very definitely how this revision may best be made, but we have reason to conclude from the testimony of the superintendents and the principals alike, that it will affect especially the teaching of arithmetic and geography, as well as instruction in nature study, penmanship and grammar.<sup>(13)</sup>

Since this revision looks principally to the rearranging of studies<sup>(14)</sup> already sanctioned by the board of education, the work naturally devolves upon the supervising force alone, and accordingly we suggest :

(13) "A majority of your committee are of the opinion that formal English grammar should be discontinued in the eighth year, and the study of some foreign language, preferably that of Latin, substituted. The educational effect on an English-speaking pupil of taking up a language which, like Latin, uses inflections instead of prepositions, and which further differs from English by the order in which its words are arranged in the sentence, is quite marked, and a year of Latin places a pupil by a wide interval out of the range of the pupil who has continued English grammar without taking up Latin. But the effect of the year's study of Latin increases the youth's power of appreciation in very many directions by reason of the fact that so much of the English vocabulary used in technical vocabularies, like those of geography, grammar, history and literature, is from a Latin source, and besides there are so many traces in the form and substance of human learning of the hundreds of years when Latin was the only tongue in which observation and reflection could be expressed."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 55.*

(14) Minor criticism could easily be made in the course of study of the elementary schools. To mention one instance, the teaching of English history by means of the same text-book later employed in the high schools seems a flagrant violation of educational principles, more particularly as the text is generally considered difficult for the latter pupils and as having a proper place only in college instruction. It has been hinted in this connection that some publishing houses have attempted to bring undue pressure to bear on the board of education for the retention of books once placed on the list. The recommendation already made, that to the superintendent be assigned the choice of text-books, should obviate this difficulty.

SECTION 2.—THAT IN CONSIDERATION OF THE ABOVE, THE SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS ASSISTANTS BE INSTRUCTED CAREFULLY TO CONSIDER AND TO REVISE THE COURSE OF STUDY OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, IN ORDER THAT THE WORK OF EACH GRADE MAY BE SIMPLER, MORE PROGRESSIVE AND BETTER UNIFIED; THAT THE WORK OF THE DIFFERENT GRADES, ESPECIALLY OF THE EIGHTH AND NINTH, *i. e.*, THE FIRST YEAR OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, MAY BE MORE CLOSELY CORRELATED AND REARRANGED, WITH DUE REFERENCE TO THE SPECIAL STUDIES INTRODUCED IN RECENT YEARS; AND PARTICULARLY TO THE GRADUAL INTRODUCTION, ELSEWHERE RECOMMENDED, OF SOME FORM OF CONSTRUCTIVE WORK IN EACH GRADE OF ALL SCHOOLS;

The revision here suggested should affect especially the eighth and ninth grades. There is a sharp differentiation between the last year of the elementary school and the first year of the high school, and on this account the elementary schools are in a measure isolated in fact and rendered distinct and separate in public opinion. This break in sequence is one reason why more pupils do not go from the eighth to the ninth grade, and explains in part the large percentage of failures among the pupils in the first year of the high school. This percentage, varying from 15 to 30 per cent, is unduly large and would be reduced, we think, if the departmental plan of instruction now common in the high school were extended, as elsewhere recommended, to the upper grades of the elementary schools. In this way the pupils would become accustomed to working under a number of teachers, and would not be hampered by the abrupt change of subjects and methods which now marks their entrance to the secondary schools. The chasm between the eighth and ninth grades has been already partially bridged by the introduction in recent years into the eighth and even the seventh grade, of studies heretofore only taught in the high schools. Latin and algebra have their justification in elementary schools on their own merits, apart from the advantage which this preparation affords for more advanced work. At the same time, the teaching of these and some other subjects has made the transition from the eighth grade to the high school a much easier one.

In regard to the unification of the course of study, already referred to as essential, we would suggest further the importance of systematizing the instruction in manual training or "constructive work," which is recommended later. This should, we believe, be made one of the fundamental principles in elementary school work<sup>(15)</sup>, and the ease with which it may

(15) "The arts, both the æsthetic and the industrial, have a recognized value in the education of children. They should, however, be incorporated in a course

be made to co-ordinate the instruction in different grades will further facilitate the desired sequence in the course of study.<sup>(16)</sup>

SECTION 3.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY BE SO READJUSTED AS READILY TO PERMIT OF AT LEAST SEMI-ANNUAL PROMOTIONS FROM GRADE TO GRADE.<sup>(17)</sup>

The testimony of thoughtful educators is by no means unanimously in favor of the semi-annual promotion of pupils from grade to grade, and your commission feels some hesitancy in making this suggestion. Those who have argued most effectively against this plan, however, recognize it as a step toward greater freedom in the school program and appreciate the advantage of the quicker advance which it affords the particularly bright or studious pupil.<sup>(18)</sup> Their objection is that the remedy proposed is not adequate, and they favor, instead, the freest promotion of pupils by the principals.<sup>(19)</sup> The two plans do not seem to your commission essentially

of study, not be tacked on to a course filled to repletion. The æsthetic arts, under the name of drawing, have become a constituent part of the Chicago course in elementary schools. The industrial arts, under the heads manual training and domestic arts, are tacked on at the two ends of the same course, *i. e.*, in the kindergarten and in the seventh and eighth grades. The use of the word 'tacked' is explained by this statement: The course of study is the same for schools not having a kindergarten or a manual training class or a cooking class, that it is for schools having all of the three. No change has been made in the course, on account of the almost general introduction of manual training into the upper grades. So manual training is an addition to the old course."—*A Chicago Superintendent*.

(16) In the city of Washington (D. C.) the "constructive work" idea has been admirably developed as an underlying principle of the course of study and the curriculum has a unity which is hardly to be found in that of the elementary schools in any other large city. Similar results have been secured in the Jewish Training School of Chicago.

(17) "Two admissions a year, one in September and one in February, would assist in holding pupils in the high school."—*Ella F. Young Club*.

(18) "The great fault with the public school system, as I see it, is the retardation of bright scholars."—*William L. Dudley, Vanderbilt University*.

"Classes should be arranged with reference to semi-annual promotion of pupils. Shorter or longer intervals between classes are fraught with serious objections from the standpoint of the child."—*J. H. Phillips, Superintendent Birmingham (Ala.) Schools*.

(19) "The advancement of pupils from one grade to another was for many years determined by written examination, given by the principal. The failure of the pupil to pass it caused the retention of the pupil in the grade frequently six months or a year, until another class was ready for promotion. Review and

opposed, and we believe that with semi-annual promotion the problem of advance at any time of especially qualified children will be much simplified.<sup>(20)</sup> One objection to such frequent promotion rests in the diminished acquaintance of the teacher with the pupils, and perhaps a corresponding

repetition became wearisome and the mental growth of the child was depressed and dwarfed. It has been the aim of the superintendents to have the promotion made from grade to grade upon the basis of the knowledge of the child's power possessed by the teacher and the principal, and not upon any special or final review examination."—*A. G. Lane, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education.*

(20) "The question of promotion of pupils has occupied from time to time very much attention. Your committee believes that in many systems of elementary schools there is one injury done by too much formality in ascertaining whether the pupils of a given class have completed the work up to an arbitrarily fixed point, and are ready to take up the next apportionment of the work. In the early days of city school systems, when the office of superintendent was first created, it was thought necessary to divide up the graded course of study into years of work, and to hold stated annual examinations to ascertain how many pupils could be promoted to the next grade or year's work. All that failed in this examination were set back at the beginning of the year's work to spend another year in reviewing it. This was to meet the convenience of the superintendent, who, it was said, could not hold examinations to suit the wants of particular individuals or classes. From this arrangement there naturally resulted a great deal of what is called "marking time." Pupils who had nearly completed the work of the year were placed with pupils who had till now a year's interval below them. Discouragement and demoralization at the thought of taking up again a course of lessons learned once before caused many pupils to leave school prematurely. This evil has been remedied in nearly one-half of the cities by promoting pupils whenever they have completed the work of a grade. The constant tendency of classification to become imperfect by reason of the difference in the rates of advancement of the several pupils owing to a disparity in ages, degree of maturity, temperament and health, makes frequent re-classification necessary. This is easily accomplished by promoting the few pupils who distance the majority of their classmates into the next class above, separated as it is, or ought to be, by an interval of less than half a year. The bright pupils thus promoted have to struggle to make up the ground covered in the interval between the two classes, but they are nearly always able to accomplish this, and generally will in two years' time need another promotion from class to class."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 79.*

"In place of basing the promotion of pupils, in whole or in part, on a promotion examination, it is determined by the teacher's careful estimation of the pupil's ability to do advanced work. A premium is put upon the character of the work done day by day rather than upon the amount of stuffing which can be done in preparation for the examination. Thus the pupils are furnished a moderate and continued stimulus, instead of an excessive and spasmodic one. The promotion examination prevents board and progressive teaching, makes out of the teacher a 'grind,' and turns out machine pupils. It is not a test of ability either of teachers or of pupils. It is great temptation to deceit and causes many mental wrecks. It causes the loss of more than one-third time in school. It is the cause of the attempted uniformity in school work and of trying to make all do the same amount of work in the same time. Therefore it shortens the school life of the majority and menaces the intellectual life of every boy and girl in the graded schools.

"Under this plan they average a gain of about the same amount of time. Therefore, there would be saved an average of about four years for each pupil through the schools. Thus there would be saved to the district what it would

lessening of his efficiency with them. This objection, in so far as it may apply to the more advanced grades, will be largely obviated with the further extension of the departmental plan of instruction which is now in vogue in many schools and seems likely to meet hereafter with even greater favor.

SECTION 4.—THAT A KINDERGARTEN OPEN TO CHILDREN FROM FOUR TO SIX YEARS OF AGE BE ESTABLISHED AS SOON AS POSSIBLE IN CONNECTION WITH EACH SCHOOL IN THE MORE THICKLY POPULATED DISTRICTS OF THE CITY, AND ULTIMATELY IN EVERY SCHOOL.

The arguments for kindergarten instruction are sufficiently known.<sup>(21)</sup> The necessity for these schools in large cities is every day more apparent, and they are being established in rapidly increasing numbers. Chicago, for many reasons, is in greater need of kindergartens than any other city,

cost to instruct a pupil for that time, or about \$199. When this is multiplied by the number of pupils attending, the financial saving becomes material. Add to this the greater saving secured by the lengthening of the pupils' productive lives, and the financial saving is more than doubled."—*William J. Shearer, Superintendent Public Schools, Elizabethtown, N. J., in Education, April, 1898.*

(21) For a fuller consideration of the kindergarten and its function in the public school system, see Appendix B.

"The kindergarten has not yet taken the place in our public school system which its importance demands. It is a matter of record, made after a careful study of results, that in cities the kindergarten children do better in entering school than those who have not received such training. Work is the true spirit of the kindergarten room; idleness and listlessness have no encouragement there. Self-activity is the keynote to every exercise."—*Editorial in American School Board Journal, Easter Edition, 1898.*

"The kindergarten ideal is the ethical individual—an idea that is just beginning to appear on the educational horizon through other lines of thought. As the direction whither educational thought is tending is recognized, the prophetic insight of the founder of the kindergarten will be considered a necessary part of every school. The organization and spread of the kindergarten, its effect in modifying and transforming educational thought and practice during the past twenty-five years, is one of the great facts of modern educational history."—*Nina C. Vanderwalker, in Kindergarten Magazine, March, 1898.*

"The general introduction of the kindergarten into public schools is the greatest step in pedagogy that has ever been made in this country. It is, however, fraught with dangers both to the kindergartens and the other schools, and necessitates considerable modification of both. The kindergarten must not be attached to the public school as a new and distinct department, but it must be co-ordinated with them in a vital way. This means, for the kindergarten, broader culture, and better professional training for the kindergartner, a more general spirit of co-operation and an attempt to meet real rather than imaginary conditions; a broadening of the course and a gradual modification of the tools used; a better training for citizenship through the enlarged comprehension of the meaning of co-operation. This means, for the other schools, the sweetening and mollifying of the system of discipline, through the introduction of the kindergarten spirit; a more rational and careful consideration of individual needs; the introduction of a more generous and altruistic spirit into the schools; a training for citizenship through the introduction of self-



with the possible exception of New York. More particularly is the demand felt in the thickly populated sections of the city, where these schools should be established as rapidly as possible. It is hardly within the province of your commission to suggest the best method to be followed in this matter, but there appears to be good arguments for half day sessions only, and those in the morning hours.<sup>(22)</sup> Under special conditions, due to a lack of school accommodations, it might appear advisable to use the kindergarten rooms both morning and afternoon, either with the same or

government; a saving of time in the instruction in fundamental branches; the making of education real and vital instead of formal and unreal."—*C. B. Gilbert, Superintendent Public Schools, Newark, N. J., N. E. A. Proceedings, 1897.*

"I note especially the recommendation for the introduction of the kindergarten in the more thickly populated districts of the city, and ultimately in every school. The kindergarten, however, should be made to take in children who are four years old. I do not know what the custom is in Chicago, but in other states the law is so that the kindergarten cannot be lawfully opened to children under five. It should be opened in Chicago and in all large cities, especially in the thickly populated districts, for all children who are four years old."—*Henry Sabín, Ex-State Superintendent Public Instruction, Des Moines, Ia.*

(22) CHICAGO, July 13, 1898—*To the Chicago Educational Commission—Gentlemen:* Knowing it is your intention to consider, among other things, that of the kindergarten in connection with the public school, and being apprised of the fact that many of the principals have discussed and even recommended two daily sessions of kindergarten in our public schools, we beg to submit the following protest from the Association of Chicago Public School Kindergartners:

"The kindergarten teachers of the Chicago public schools do, as a body, protest against two daily sessions of kindergarten, for the following reasons:

"First, because the quality of the work would necessarily be lowered.

"Second, because the vitality of little children is much lower in the afternoon.

"We are told that it is the natural life of the kindergarten—the creative, constructive, developing life—that makes it valuable in education. To bring about this natural life in the school room, and prepare work that is always developing, the teacher must be fresh and alive; she must have time to grow as well as recuperate, for the younger the children the greater the demand upon her vitality. And we all know only too well how the teacher's state of mind and body is reflected in her pupils.

"Under present conditions the kindergartner may meet the demands made upon her; she may visit the homes and hold mothers' meetings, thus helping to establish the very desirable 'closer relation of home and school,' for the fifty kindergarten mothers may be mothers of one hundred and fifty or two hundred children in the higher grades.

"Now, two daily sessions means doubling the work; it means one hundred instead of fifty little children to study; it also means that the teacher will be deprived of many opportunities for the necessary growth, preparation and the outside work that makes the kindergarten, as it stands to-day, a firm foundation for all that is to follow. It would necessarily lower the quality of work very much, and for that reason we trust that you will favorably consider our protest.

Very respectfully,

"KINDERGARTEN COMMITTEE,

"MARY M. BLODGETT, *Chairman.*"



different teachers, but we are inclined to think that this would be for some reasons undesirable, and that it would lead to less efficiency in the schools. While your commission is unanimous in favoring more kindergartens, we believe that great skill and care are necessary in this, as in many other lines of school work, to secure a maximum of results with the funds available for the purpose.

## The High Schools

### ARTICLE VI

Your Commission respectfully recommends in regard to the secondary schools of the city :

SECTION 1.—THAT AN EFFORT BE MADE TO CORRELATE MORE CLOSELY THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS ON THE ONE HAND AND THE NORMAL SCHOOL ON THE OTHER ;

SECTION 2.—THAT PROVISION BE MADE FOR A LARGER TEACHING FORCE, IN ORDER THAT THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN ANY ONE CLASS NEED NOT EXCEED FORTY ;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE SESSION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL BE HELD FROM NINE TO THREE, WITH A RECESS OF THIRTY MINUTES ;

SECTION 4.—THAT A LARGER PROPORTION OF THE TEACHERS BE MEN ; AND THAT ALL PROPER MEANS BE EMPLOYED TO ATTRACT MEN TO THESE POSITIONS ;

SECTION 5.—THAT A COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL, WITH A FULL, LIBERAL FOUR YEARS' COURSE OF STUDY, BE ESTABLISHED IN SOME CENTRAL LOCATION ;

SECTION 6.—THAT TWO ADDITIONAL MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOLS BE ESTABLISHED, ONE ON THE NORTH SIDE AND ONE ON THE SOUTH SIDE OF THE CITY, EACH WITH A FOUR YEARS' COURSE OPENED TO BOYS AND GIRLS, WITH SPECIAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE LATTER IN STUDIES PERTAINING TO DOMESTIC ECONOMY ;

SECTION 7.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY OF THE PRESENT MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL ON THE WEST SIDE BE CHANGED TO ACCORD WITH THE PROVISIONS JUST MENTIONED FOR THE NEW SCHOOLS.

There has been considerable discussion recently in Chicago in regard to the deficient school accommodations of the city<sup>(1)</sup>, and your commission has noted with much favor a growing demand on the part of the

(-) "I hope the educational authorities will continue to adjust the work to the needs of the masses. Handicapped as we are with 2,346 more children in rented buildings than a year ago, and 5,758 more children than there were a

people that every child of school age, not otherwise provided for, should have the full advantage of the public school system. This is a very encouraging sign for the future of the Chicago schools, because it indicates a public interest and support, without which the schools would inevitably suffer. In the discussion of this question, however, comparisons have been introduced between the elementary and the secondary schools, and statements made in regard to the latter which your commission feels are founded on an inadequate conception of the function of our public high schools. In this stage of the educational history of the city there is little public opposition to the high school idea. Our secondary schools are too firmly established in public esteem ever to be seriously impaired by a spirit of retrenchment.<sup>(2)</sup> The charge has been made, however, that the present liberal policy toward the high schools interferes with the proper support of the elementary schools, and thus, in a measure, the two have been brought

year ago receiving only half-day instruction, it devolves upon the board of education to proceed with all possible dispatch to meet emergencies."—E. G. Halle, *President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1898*.

"Some people say that Chicago is doing as well for its children as any other large city, but that is no excuse for neglect here. That there are not school houses enough in other cities and that more children in proportion are denied schooling or put off with a half day's schooling in some other cities is neither here nor there. In New York, for instance, it is said that there are 30,000 children turned into the streets for want of school room. But the papers of that city are making a vigorous campaign for more room. Some of them have editorials about it very frequently. They say that the children must get the best training money can buy, that it doesn't pay to waste genius and that the city should bring out all the stuff there is in the minds of its citizens. We should make a similar campaign here."—E. Benjamin Andrews, *Superintendent of Schools, Chicago*.

(2) M. Buisson, special commissioner from the French government, in an official report detailing the results of his observations of the common schools of the United States, thus speaks of the high school: "In other countries it is to be feared that the children of different classes of society, although they may be brought together for a time in the public school, will very soon be found separated as widely as are their families in the social scale. In America everything is done to retard and reduce the degree of that separation by carrying as far and as high as possible the common instruction which effaces all distinction between the rich and the poor. Thus do the two divisions of the public school system render the state diverse but equally important service. The one gives to it an entire population knowing how to read and write; the other draws from this mass a select few whom it endows with an intellectual capacity sufficient to pay a hundred times its cost. How is this selection made? By favor of public liberality, which is a burden to none, thousands of children—the best, the most gifted, the most highly educated, the best fitted for labor, the best prepared for the battle of life, both by the example of their own parents and by their own struggles—come out of the mass of the poor, perhaps indigent, population, where otherwise they would remain undistinguished, and year by year infuse new life into the middle class. If it be true that the prosperity of a republic is in direct ratio to the renewal of these middle classes, to the abundance and facility of their indefinite recruiting, then the high school of the United States, whatever it may cost, is the very best investment which can be made of national capital."—*Quoted from Education, Vol. 3, page 163*.

into opposition. This seems to your commission both deplorable and unjustifiable. Any conception that considers the advantages of the high school limited to those actually pursuing the secondary course involves an entire misunderstanding of the public school system as a whole. The broader function of these schools may be seen in their beneficial effects on every part of the school system.<sup>(3)</sup> There is hardly a more pernicious idea in education than that the training of an individual is finished in any real sense at any particular stage. The man or woman who leaves college with the feeling that on obtaining the diploma certain lines of study are definitely closed, has surely failed to reap the most important benefits of higher education. Even the student of medicine, or law, or theology, who, at the end of the professional training, does not look forward to continuous and arduous effort towards deepening and broadening his technical knowledge, offers little promise of useful activity in his later work. This statement is equally true of the lower schools. The boy who leaves the eighth grade with the idea that in book knowledge he is adequately prepared to realize the possibilities of life, and accordingly feels no necessity for future study in any field, no matter what his work may be, affords the saddest possible

(3) "No school system can effectually meet the object of its creation which does not embrace in its constitution provisions for carrying the education of youth beyond the common branches. With one hand the high school beckons the pupil of the elementary schools to come upward to its more elevated outlook, and with the other it points its own students to the still higher outlook. Lacking the high school, the pupil of the lower schools would lose a chief incentive to exertion. The course of study, too, for the lower schools is certain to feel the influence of the high school. This course is too often afflicted with a fearful leanness—built on the principle that the three R's, and but little of them, are sufficient to meet all the educational needs of the common people. But perhaps the influence of the high schools upon the lower schools are exerted more powerfully in providing for them a class of teachers of a higher grade of qualifications than it was possible to secure under the former order of things. No argument is needed to show the utter vanity of all schemes of public education which at the same time fail to place a competent teacher in every school. The high school cannot give us professionally trained teachers—the supplementary work of the normal school is required for that—but it does give us teachers whose views have been broadened and love of knowledge deepened by some taste of liberal culture. And this higher education of teachers as a class renders possible the successful introduction into the lower schools—especially into the primary departments—of those improved methods of instruction which have lifted teaching from something less than an empiric art to the level of a science, and are doing more than any other agency to make knowledge loved by the whole people. Without the character-training and the resources which come to our teachers from a high school education, these methods would prove an utter failure, or degenerate into a mechanism more lifeless than the worst mechanism of the dreadful past; for it may be stated as an educational axiom that intelligent methods can be applied by intelligent teachers only. Machine methods are necessary wherever machine teachers are found."—*John Hancock, in Education, November, 1882.*

commentary on our elementary schools.<sup>(4)</sup> Yet this conception of education, met with even now, would be widely prevalent were there not before the child the idea of further possibilities concretely represented in the secondary schools. If our school system included only the grades through which the majority of children are actually able to pass, it would be impossible to maintain in these the same earnest spirit and desire for study. Your commission feels deeply impressed with the influence of the high schools on the lower grades, even in the case of the large majority of children who are not able to enter the former, and is assured that large expenditures for secondary schools would be fully justified without any consideration of the benefits conferred on those actually attending them.

Moreover, when one carefully examines the history of the high schools in a large city and looks into the records of the graduates, it seems difficult to overrate the beneficial influence of these schools on their pupils. The effect of a high school training on the average boy or girl is to increase marvelously the opportunities for a life of successful activity and wholesome enjoyment. Every year of the high school course satisfactorily completed, means a largely increased usefulness to the community and a much fuller life for the individual. Men well acquainted with the school history of Chicago, experienced in affairs, and trained observers, have frankly declared their opinion that one high school graduate will do more for the city and be a larger factor in the commercial, industrial, social and political life of the community, than any average four or five who have finished only the course of the elementary schools. This statement should justify a generous spirit towards the higher schools, despite the greater cost for instruction in these grades. We believe that the establishment and support of public high schools should be encouraged for either one of the two reasons here advanced.

(4) "In all this grammar school work there should be a looking forward, a reaching up to the advantages and privileges of the high school. The grammar teacher should ever have in mind, and attractively but unobtrusively present to his advanced pupils, the benefits of the high school course, as placing them upon a higher plane of intellectual and industrial life, as making this life better worth the living, as the almost 'divine event to which the whole creation moves.' There should be a very intimate understanding between the principals of the grammar and high schools; the high school principal should know what is done, what has been done, in the grammar school in language, in grammar, in history and composition; and the grammar school principal should clearly understand the work and the methods of the high school and lead his pupils to feel that they are making an upward step. They should and must leave behind many of their earlier modes of study and preparation, and step forth more free and untrammelled into some of the higher and more fruitful fields of learning."—George Howland, *Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1889.*

But our secondary schools are fulfilling another function equally important and far more direct in its influence upon the educational system of the city. While the high school stands forth as the concrete ideal of broader training to the great mass of pupils, and while it puts its indelible stamp on hundreds of its graduates each year, it furnishes likewise the only safeguard and security for proper teaching in the lower grades. Without the public high school and the opportunities thus afforded for a more liberal education, the standard of teaching in the elementary schools, it is safe to say, would be incomparably inferior to that which we enjoy to-day. If any one will stop to compare the schools of to-day with those of twenty-five years ago, he will quickly see marked results which have been secured through successive advances during the last two decades in the requirements made of those desiring to enter the teaching force of the city. In the last ten years, even, the efficiency of our teachers has been greatly increased. In this advance our high schools have played a most important part. For the sake of securing properly qualified teachers, so indispensable to the elementary schools, it is necessary for the city to offer the widest possible opportunities for secondary education, and, even on this ground alone, the most generous provision should be made for an adequate number of properly equipped high schools.

Recognizing the above considerations as the most important reasons for the existence of the high school, your commission would not fail to call attention also to the preparation here afforded for more advanced instruction.<sup>(5)</sup> Our western states in particular have profited very largely from the enlightened policy and liberal-minded generosity of the National government towards education. The setting aside of large sections of land for school purposes has facilitated the establishment by

(5) "First principle—what is truly best for the people is best for the school and ultimately best for higher education. The converse is also true. Whatever is best for higher education is best for the school, and ultimately best for the people. The real interest of the common school, the high school, and the university, the academy and the college, are identical. In forming courses of study, the persistent preferences of any portion of the community should be recognized each in its appropriate time and course. Within the limits of their resources higher institutions should give these subjects and these courses equal recognition; and, conversely, all secondary courses should be preparatory courses. So far as curriculum goes, the difference between a large school and a small one should be the difference in the number of grades. Once the universities base their requirements on limits of time and substance, and reduce the number of subjects required for entrance to all courses to a retreating minimum, the best interests of the people require that all courses be preparatory. No subject without sufficient nutriment to develop an advanced student has sufficient nutriment to develop a citizen and a member of society. Any subject possessing real qualities to develop a young person may well be recognized by our colleges and universities."—George B. Alton, in *School Review*, June, 1898.



individual states, not only of good common school systems, but also of state universities. Your commission believes that in fact, if not in law, the obligation is thus laid upon the communities of the state which share most largely in the distribution of these funds, of enabling every child, as far as possible, to enjoy the privilege of study at higher institutions. Chicago has an enviable record in the number of its high school graduates who have gone to various colleges and universities, and is profiting deeply to-day by the large proportion of college-bred men and women identified with its municipal life.

A conception of the great utility of the public high school in the Chicago system has been the first result of a study of these schools, and we heartily commend the expenditure of school funds in this direction. We desire, also, to call attention to the high and constantly advancing standard of the Chicago high schools. In the teaching force especially, the increased opportunities for higher education admit now of requiring proportionately higher qualifications. Twenty years ago it would have been a hardship to ask of candidates for secondary positions the equivalent of good college training. To-day, the city can get from the University of Illinois, from Lake Forest, Northwestern, and Chicago Universities, and from other institutions in this and neighboring states, the best graduates—many of them men and women who received their preparation for college in our own public schools. Under these conditions the board of education would be justified in establishing the minimum entrance requirement for teachers at a bachelor's degree or its equivalent, and the time is not far distant when two or three years of graduate, specialized study can properly be expected of every candidate. In the high schools, as in the elementary schools, Chicago should insist upon having the best professional service available. To this end, the requirements for appointment should increase each year in difficulty and at the same time teachers should be expected to give proof of constant study and self-improvement.

SECTION I.—THAT AN EFFORT BE MADE TO CORRELATE MORE CLOSELY THE WORK OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS WITH THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS ON THE ONE HAND AND THE NORMAL SCHOOL ON THE OTHER ;

Reference has already been made to the desirability of connecting the work of the high school more closely with that of the elementary schools. An effort should be made to bridge the chasm which has been recognized to exist between the two. The introduction of Latin into the last grades of the elementary schools, as has been pointed out, has doubtless exercised an influence in this direction. The further use of the departmental plan

in these grades will have a similar effect. A simplification of the course of study that would tend to relieve the overcrowding in the seventh and eighth grades would bring children into the high schools better prepared to pursue successfully the higher branches, while relief from the overcrowding in the ninth grade would permit a larger proportion to finish successfully the work of this year. In a broader way, we believe, efforts may be made, leading to a closer continuity between the elementary schools and the high schools. Teachers of the latter should be encouraged to gain a more intimate knowledge of teaching done in the grades below. They should be brought into contact, as far as possible, with the teachers of the neighboring elementary schools. The high schools should be educational centers for the different districts, just as the elementary school should be made a center for its particular section. Therefore it might be well to give the high school principal a certain connection with the elementary schools nearby, thus influencing the children to recognize that the two are naturally related. The location, even, in certain sections of the city, of an elementary school in the same building with the high school would have a similar effect. These plans and others that have been suggested from time to time to the supervising force, commend themselves strongly to your commission.

Not less important than the close connection between the high school and the elementary school, is the relation of the former to the normal school of the city. That one of the most important functions of the high schools is to educate future teachers, has been indicated. A very large percentage of graduates of our high schools each year enter the normal school. It is clear, then, that the course of study in these schools should be arranged in reference to each other. Your commission is fully persuaded that without limiting the work of the high school in the immediate preparation of its pupils for active life, or in their indirect preparation through courses of higher instruction, it can be made to furnish a more adequate and direct training for the normal school.

SECTION 2.—THAT PROVISION BE MADE FOR A LARGER TEACHING FORCE,  
IN ORDER THAT THE NUMBER OF PUPILS IN ANY ONE CLASS NEED NOT  
EXCEED FORTY ;

In recommending various changes in the school system which will lead necessarily to larger expense, your commission has not failed to call attention to the necessity of observing the utmost economy practicable. Provisions have been made, however, in various parts of the school system that do not accord with sound economy. This is eminently the case in

the number of pupils assigned to the teachers in the different grades. Experience has shown that a teacher in the fifth or sixth grade can give proper instruction to a larger number of pupils than is possible, for example, in the kindergarten. At the other end of the school course it seems also very desirable that the number of pupils under each teacher be smaller. Considering the expense of the general maintenance of a high school and the rapid decrease of its efficiency where many pupils are put under the charge of one teacher, we are strongly of the opinion that the standard of these schools can be maintained only by an increase in the teaching force. In many instances the classes have been so overcrowded that the teachers have been unable to accomplish adequate results in their work.<sup>(6)</sup> A maximum of forty pupils in any one class would seem to be the largest number that can be properly handled by one teacher; many of our most experienced educators are in favor of a smaller number.<sup>(7)</sup> The number here suggested indicates a limit beyond which the effectiveness of instruction is diminished in entire disproportion to the saving in salaries thus secured.<sup>(8)</sup>

(6) During the current school year seventy pupils were assigned to one teacher for a daily recitation of forty minutes in beginning Latin.

(7) "The 'suggestions' say that the number of pupils in any one class should not exceed forty. That limit is too high. I should rather make it thirty."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Instruction, Des Moines, Ia.*

(8) "Forty pupils in a class is nearly twice too many. Thirty-five is the utmost limit for the accomplishment of really efficient work, and that number ought not to be exceeded if it is possible to avoid it."—*A Chicago Principal.*

"One of the greatest evils which militate against the largest success of the Chicago system of high schools is the unreasonable size of the classes, organized with a view to economy, but resulting in inexcusable extravagance.

"Pupils who pass from the grammar to the high schools find themselves in a new atmosphere, with new teachers and a new order of studies. These studies require preparation and the exercise of reason and judgment beyond that brought into requisition before. These pupils are of different degrees of talent, have been under different methods of instruction and need much individual attention, especially in the first months and year of the high school.

"Classes in algebra, Latin, German, English and science organized with fifty or sixty pupils cannot be properly managed and instructed by one teacher. The results are that many become early discouraged and discontinue school who under other and more encouraging circumstances would remain for a full course of study. That ten or twenty per cent fail in the first year of the high school is lamentable and calls for drastic remedies. No class should be permitted with more than forty pupils, while thirty would be nearer the ideal."—*A. F. Nightingale, Assistant Superintendent for High Schools (Chicago.)*

SECTION 3.—THAT THE SESSION OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS BE HELD FROM NINE TO THREE, WITH A RECESS OF THIRTY MINUTES ;

There is a very general feeling, we have found, among the teachers in our high schools that the school day should be divided into six instead of five periods. This would allow more flexibility in the programme and greater freedom to the pupils in selecting the studies which they desire. We do not think, however, that such a division would be advisable with the present number of hours given to high school work. It would result in cutting down the length of recitations to an extent that would impair the value of higher instruction. With efficient teachers, there is no question that the recitation periods are much more important in the secondary than even in the elementary schools ; far greater results can be secured in a fifty-minute than in a forty-minute period. The recommendation for an increase in the hours demanded of high school instructors will lead, in all probability, to considerable opposition, but your commission, judging from the experience not only of high schools now added to the city system through annexation, but also of other cities throughout the country, feels convinced that the change here proposed, while increasing somewhat the demands made upon the corps of instruction, will lead to such an improved condition of our high schools as will commend the change even to those affected. Indeed, the recommendation comes in part from those whose duties would be increased by its adoption. This lengthening of the day in the high schools, while making the instruction much more efficient, would also effect a great saving in expense, equivalent perhaps to 20 per cent. of the cost of salaries in these schools. „

SECTION 4.—THAT A LARGER PROPORTION OF THE TEACHERS BE MEN ; AND THAT ALL PROPER MEANS BE EMPLOYED TO ATTRACT MEN TO THESE POSITIONS ;

In the high schools the proportion of men to women in the teaching force should be higher than in the elementary schools. The arguments mentioned in a former section<sup>(9)</sup>, for the employment of more men in the lower grades, apply to an even greater degree to the high school. The need of a radical change, however, is not so strongly felt in the secondary schools, owing to the larger proportion of men now in these positions. This is due to a consistent policy of the board of education, which your commission strongly approves.

(9) See Article IV. Section 9.

SECTION 5.—THAT A COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOL<sup>(10)</sup>, WITH A FULL, LIBERAL FOUR YEARS' COURSE OF STUDY BE ESTABLISHED IN SOME CENTRAL LOCATION.

The importance of a commercial high school in a city like Chicago scarcely requires demonstration.<sup>(11)</sup> The need of it may be seen in the decreasing proportion of boys in the secondary schools, a fact due in part to the failure to furnish the kind of instruction adapted to them. The desire for such a school has been felt for some years, as evidenced by the earnest recommendations to this effect in annual reports of various presidents of the board of education.<sup>(12)</sup> This demand for commercial training in the public school system is by no means limited to Chicago. The subject has been widely discussed throughout the country and various

(10) For fuller treatment of the commercial high school, see Appendix C.

(11) "Recognizing the value of the present course of study in the high schools as a training for teaching, for preparing for college and as a means of general culture, we believe that they do not fully meet the needs of a large number of our youth after leaving the grammar schools, and we therefore recommend the establishment of commercial courses in our high schools and of a greater number of high and manual training schools."—*The George Howland Club, Chicago*.

(12) "New York city taught us a wholesome lesson recently by establishing a commercial course calculated to equip its pupils for business pursuits. English and German are studied throughout their four-year high school course. In the second, third and fourth years French and Spanish are optional studies. All through the four years bookkeeping, business correspondence, banking and finance, commercial arithmetic and economics are also taught, and if we profit by this example we can expect to compete with continental countries in the struggle for commercial supremacy in the Latin Americas. Already we have at our doorsteps Germany and England virtually monopolizing the trade of Mexico, Central and South America. The development of Germany's commerce is said to be directly traceable to scientific education, the small kingdom of Saxony, though an inland state, having foreign commerce of upwards of \$100,000,000 annually. So great is the faith of that country in this method of education that to the thirty commercial schools they had, ten more have been added within a very few years. Chicago should be the great distributing center of the south and southwest, as well as the north and northwest, but to make her so we must not only impart a thorough knowledge of our own, but of other languages and peoples. Extension of our commercial relations is imperative if we are to prosper permanently, and we must see to it that at least intelligent competition is had with the representatives of less enterprising countries."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1897*.

"There is yet one important phase of human activity not touched by our high school curriculum, a phase which in a large sense dominates and gives direction to all the other elements of common concern. I refer to the commercial interest, and state it as my belief that if there be found any need of educated and skilled directors it certainly is in this field. The interests are so vast, so interwoven with every economic industry and so conducive to progressive civilization, that it touches with a benignant hand every human relation. The opportunities of entering our commercial houses, except as 'hewers of wood and drawers of water' for great proprietors, are extraordinarily limited, mainly because our young men are without preparation for the responsible

cities have taken steps in this direction. The arguments which have been employed in favor of such a school in New York, in Philadelphia and in San Francisco have equal weight when applied to Chicago. Our peculiar position industrially and the great natural advantages here afforded in commercial enterprise make it vitally important that this city should have a large body of young men carefully trained and equipped for such work.

Your commission would not be misunderstood in its recommendation for a commercial school. The question may be fairly debatable whether any specific training for the pursuits of after-life should be furnished in the public school system; but this question need not be discussed here, since it is not at all involved in the present proposal. Training in the immediate necessities of the ordinary business clerk or assistant is given in the book-keeping, stenography and typewriting courses of the "business college." These subjects may find a proper place in some part of our system of public instruction, but only on the condition that they be reckoned an unimportant feature in the course of study. If to them be added commercial arithmetic, the general theory of accounting, mechanical drawing and other studies proposed here in recent discussions, the resulting curriculum will still not justify the establishment of a distinct school, for this would belong to a class of schools which, excellent in themselves, afford only a special, narrow training and should not be duplicated in our public system. The broad course, which your commission has in mind, can be best suggested by a reference to the higher commercial schools in Europe.

Germany took the lead in offering young men opportunities in separate schools of preparing themselves for a business career. Through years of patient experimentation a kind of school has been developed which meets this purpose; how successfully, can be seen in the rapid strides which that country is making in the field of commerce and industry, for to these schools is to be attributed in large measure her increasing prosperity. The important lesson which Germany has for us in this, as in so many other phases of educational and scientific work, may be summed up in the single word, "thoroughness." When classical training was the national ideal in education, the German gymnasia furnished a model of what secondary schools should be. When the importance and value of the modern languages and of science as educational instruments became apparent, the Real-Schulen of Germany quickly embodied this idea in its most adequate

duties of the management of interests that require an intimate knowledge of the history of commerce and commercial institutions, commercial geography, products, imports and exports, the theory and practice of accounting, the study of commercial law in its various ramifications, the international exchange of moneys, commercial correspondence, etc."—*D. R. Cameron, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*



form. In the same spirit of thorough-going investigation and experiment Germany has grappled with the problem of commercial training and has developed different kinds and grades of this instruction, suited to the varying needs of different communities. In day schools and evening schools, in apprentice schools and technical schools, from the public system of the small town to the university courses of a large city, a systematic plan of commercial training has been effected.

We are concerned here only with that business training which is afforded in schools corresponding in grade with our public high schools. In Germany no course of one year or of two years has been proposed. On the contrary, a course of study has been laid down which is fully as liberal as that of our best secondary schools. Considering the requirements for admission, the public commercial school of Leipsic, for example, offers as sound and broad a training as is afforded in our best high schools. The training is primarily educational. The practical value of the course lies in the method of treatment adopted for the different subjects of instruction, which involves no narrowing of the culture influences proper to the secondary school. The modern languages and science are thoroughly taught, with reference, however, to their utility in commercial and industrial pursuits. History is accorded fair attention, but takes the form mostly of a systematic study in the development of commerce, of manufactures and in the methods of transportation. Much attention is given to arithmetic, algebra and geometry, but with particular attention to business needs. Geography is treated not so much from the political as from the physical and commercial point of view. The whole course offers a fair equivalent of four years work in one of our high schools.

This is the kind of commercial training which your commission commends. Experience will doubtless show the advisability of modifying, of supplementing and perhaps in some cases of barring, some portions of this course, but if the commercial school is to accomplish the ends we have in mind, the curriculum must be not less broad than that of our public high schools. We feel strongly that a short and so-called "practical" course would be predestined to failure and would be an injury rather than a help to what will prove in the near future one of the most important developments in secondary education.<sup>(13)</sup>

(13) "The commercial high school is another institution which may not be created by mere argument, but will be called into existence by the necessity of the times and the rivalry of international competition, the most forcible of all arguments."—*A Morton, Superintendent, John Worthy Manual Training School, Chicago, Ill.*

"If the foregoing propositions are admitted, two things then follow of

The time is ripe for establishing a commercial high school, for at no time in the history of the country have wider commercial opportunities been opened and at no time has the spirit of competition in commercial life been more potent than at present.<sup>(14)</sup> The American city that will establish on broad foundations a school for the preparation of its young men in business activities will secure a vantage point which need not hereafter be lost, and will reap benefits entirely out of proportion to the effort now

necessity: First, that the business interests of the country require a large advance in the quality and completeness in school work over the past. Second, that to attain this result, we must improve the generally accepted curriculum of school studies. From the first of these we infer that the high school is necessary for the successful carrying out of the business projects of the country; and from the second, that careful attention should be given to arranging the most philosophic, the wisest and the best course of studies for a high school, whose chief function is to prepare young men for business life."—*William A. Mowry, in Education, Vol. III, page 166.*

(14) "The present industrial and political situation in the United States emphasizes anew the importance of more thorough provision for a sound commercial education for the masses of the people. Whatever may be the outcome of the present military struggle with Spain, whether the United States shall take and hold Cuba, Puerto Rico and the Philippines, or whether at the conclusion of peace it shall make those islands independent, one thing is certain—the present conflict, as nothing else in the life of the nation, has turned the attention of the people of the United States to the opportunities and advantages of a development of our foreign commerce. The growth of our agricultural and manufacturing industry has been so remarkable within the past few years that not only have we reached a point at which we can supply the wants and needs of our own population along many lines of manufactured commodities, but we are in a position to manufacture large surplus quantities for export to other nations. Indeed, it is perhaps an open question whether our industry can continue to advance and develop at the present rapid rate unless in some way we can open up the foreign markets for at least the surplus of our production. From this point of view the necessity of a more thorough and more extensive commercial training becomes evident. In going into foreign countries we must compete with other nations which have the advantage of cheaper capital and cheaper labor. It is evident to all these competing nations that a great advantage will belong to that one, other things being equal, which gives the most careful and patient attention to the development and training of the commercial abilities of its youth. Germany has advanced from a comparatively unimportant place to one of the leading positions in this race for world commerce, and it has done so largely because of the attention which as a nation it has given to the education of its industrial and commercial leaders. The building of the Nicaragua Canal, the development of trade with South American peoples, will offer an opportunity to Chicago which it will certainly be to its interest to seize and utilize. It is one of the standing complaints of our large business houses that they find difficulty in filling their most important positions with men who, to a natural ability for trade and commerce, join that special faculty which comes from special and careful preparation for the duties and privileges of such a career. Here in Chicago we need to provide the facilities for such education as liberally and fully as we have provided facilities for other branches of secondary training. In the magnificent system of high schools which this city has established and supports, the envy of her sister communities, we have provided good facilities for those young men and women who desire to secure a liberal education such as all educated men and women in our society should possess. We offer special facilities to those who wish to secure that general liberal training necessary for admission to the college and university

necessary to gain them. On the other hand, a city of the importance of Chicago that delays such action, will, we firmly believe, suffer needlessly in its industrial and commercial prestige. Your commission is so fully persuaded of the importance of this action that we recommend that the first expansion of the school system shall take this form and that, at the earliest possible date, a public high school be established with a course of study extending through at least four years, planned to afford a liberal training, and at the same time to prepare its pupils for the various kinds of business activity and to qualify them for the highest positions in the commercial world.

SECTION 6.—THAT TWO ADDITIONAL MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOLS BE ESTABLISHED, ONE ON THE NORTH SIDE AND ONE ON THE SOUTH SIDE OF THE CITY, EACH WITH A FOUR YEARS' COURSE <sup>(15)</sup> OPEN TO BOYS AND GIRLS, WITH SPECIAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR THE LATTER IN STUDIES PERTAINING TO DOMESTIC ECONOMY;

and to the professional schools. We offer in one or two of the schools at least partial facilities for those youths who desire a more practical training in preparation for the mechanical trades or technical professions. All this is proper, and in no respect have we as yet done our full duty even by those classes who desire this sort of education. But for that other great class of young men and women who are looking forward to occupation in commercial and mercantile pursuits, we make no provision whatever, and to that extent we are discriminating against them in the race of life. The future lawyer, physician, clergyman, teacher and engineer find in our system of secondary schools an opportunity to secure a valuable preliminary training before undertaking the study of their special professions. The future business man, whether entering upon lines of commerce, insurance, banking, or other sides of business life, finds no such assistance in our system of secondary education. While not neglecting the former, we certainly have a duty toward the latter which can only be performed by organizing a system of secondary commercial education as full, as complete and satisfactory, considering its purposes, as we have already organized in other lines. It is hardly necessary to say that we are not pleading here for the introduction of mere courses in bookkeeping, stenography and typewriting, but for that comprehensive and detailed study of the field of commerce and business which is given in the other courses in our high schools to literature, science and technology. I believe that at least one commercial high school, properly equipped and organized for furnishing this sort of instruction, ought to be established by the city of Chicago in the immediate future. Possibly courses in commercial subjects parallel to the courses in the classics and science ought to be established in two or more of the existing high schools. These are rather matters of detail, but the necessity of providing facilities for this sort of instruction is plain, and Chicago has here an opportunity to lead the way in a much needed extension and improvement of our system of secondary education. The subject has been widely discussed and debated in other cities and there is little doubt that within the near future the other large cities of the country will take up this subject in earnest. Cannot Chicago point the way in this field of commercial instruction as it has pointed the way already in so many departments of commercial and industrial life?"—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1898.*

(15) "Manual training is beyond question useful, but if introduced more generally it should not be understood as fitting pupils for special trades, but only



SECTION 7.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY OF THE PRESENT MANUAL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL ON THE WEST SIDE BE CHANGED TO ACCORD WITH THE PROVISIONS JUST MENTIONED FOR THE NEW SCHOOLS.

The results secured through the English High and Manual Training School have won general public approval. The records of its graduates compare most favorably with those of the graduates of other secondary schools. It affords a kind of training demanded by the people and chosen by a constantly increasing number of Chicago boys. We believe that increased opportunities in this direction would be to the decided advantage of the school system and indorse without qualification the proposal to establish a school similar to the English High and Manual Training School on the North Side and on the South Side. The criticism has been made of the present manual training school that its curriculum is deficient in liberal studies. Fuller provision should be made in this particular, and in suggesting a four years' course for the two additional manual training high schools recommended, as well as for the present English High and Manual Training School, we favor placing more emphasis than at present on literature, history and kindred subjects.

The technical instruction which has heretofore been offered the boys of this school, we believe should be paralleled for girls. The introduction of manual training in the lower grades has called for a number of men and women able to give such instruction. The experiments so far made in the line of domestic economy have already resulted in the partial introduction of this branch into the elementary schools, and there is reason to believe in its still wider spread. In the long run, Chicago must rely, as indicated already, on teachers prepared here for all kinds of work in the school system, and for this reason a secondary course for girls in these branches is needed. This is, however, by no means the only argument, and perhaps not the principal one for opening the manual training high schools to both sexes. Equal opportunities should be afforded boys and girls alike in our public school system, and every reason that can be adduced for such education for Chicago boys applies in like measure to Chicago girls.<sup>(16)</sup>

as a general fitting for life. Manual training schools should not be allowed to deteriorate into trade schools, nor should their work supersede the important matters of the academic side of training. Therefore, the manual training course should be longer rather than shorter than the high school course."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(16) "The opening of lines of domestic economy for girls is another step which should be noted with a great deal of favor."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Instruction, Iowa*.

## The Normal School

### ARTICLE VII

Your Commission respectfully recommends in regard to the preparation of teachers:

SECTION 1.—THAT ADMISSION TO THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE ON THE FOLLOWING CONDITIONS: (a) FOR GRADUATES OF A HIGH SCHOOL OF THIS CITY, EVIDENCE SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD OF THE SUCCESSFUL COMPLETION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY, TOGETHER WITH A RECOMMENDATION SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD FROM THE PRINCIPAL IN REGARD TO GENERAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE WORK OF TEACHING, AND A CERTIFICATE SIGNED BY A PHYSICIAN APPOINTED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION TO THE EFFECT THAT THE CANDIDATE IS IN GOOD HEALTH AND FREE FROM DISABLING PHYSICAL DEFECTS; (b) FOR THOSE WHO ARE NOT GRADUATES OF A HIGH SCHOOL OF THIS CITY, EVIDENCE SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD OF THE COMPLETION OF A COURSE OF STUDY EQUAL TO THAT OF THE LOCAL HIGH SCHOOLS, TOGETHER WITH THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE EXAMINING BOARD IN REGARD TO GENERAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE WORK OF TEACHING, AND SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE;

SECTION 2.—THAT THE WORK OF EACH STUDENT IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE CAREFULLY SUPERVISED BY THE FACULTY, AND REGULAR EXAMINATIONS BE HELD AS A TEST OF SATISFACTORY PROGRESS; AND THAT AT ANY TIME DURING THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IT BE AT THE OPTION OF THE FACULTY TO DISMISS THE PUPIL WHO, HAVING RECEIVED ALL PROPER ENCOURAGEMENT AND AID FROM THE FACULTY, SHALL FAIL TO EXHIBIT SUFFICIENT ABILITY; AND THAT SUCH DISMISSAL BE WITHOUT APPEAL, EXCEPT TO THE EXAMINING BOARD, WHOSE DECISION SHALL BE FINAL;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY BE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO FULL YEARS;

SECTION 4.—THAT THE CURRICULUM BE PLANNED TO PREPARE ITS GRADUATES TO GIVE INSTRUCTION IN ALL THE STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE COURSE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT LARGER OPPORTUNITIES BE AFFORDED, BOTH FOR OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE TEACHING;

- SECTION 5.—THAT ONE ACADEMIC STUDY AT LEAST BE PURSUED BY EACH PUPIL OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR THE PURPOSE OF GENERAL CULTURE ;
- SECTION 6.—THAT THE GRADUATES OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE SEVERALLY UNDER THE GENERAL SUPERVISION OF SOME MEMBER OF THE FACULTY, ACTING WITH THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT AND THE PRINCIPAL OF THE SCHOOL, FOR ONE YEAR AFTER THE FIRST ASSIGNMENT OF THE GRADUATES AS TEACHERS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS ;
- SECTION 7.—THAT ADDITIONAL BUILDINGS BE ERECTED FOR THE USE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL, INCLUDING AT LEAST ONE FOR THE NORMAL SCHOOL ITSELF AND ONE FOR ITS PRACTICE SCHOOL ;
- SECTION 8.—THAT AN INVESTIGATION BE MADE TO DETERMINE WHETHER, IN VIEW OF THE GROWTH OF THE CITY, IT MIGHT BE ADVANTAGEOUS TO ESTABLISH, INSTEAD OF ONE, THREE NORMAL SCHOOLS UNDER ONE RESPONSIBLE HEAD.
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The necessity of a normal school in a city system has been shown.<sup>(1)</sup> It rests upon the importance of securing teachers properly qualified to give instruction in the city schools. That such a normal school, while closely correlated with the high schools, should be distinct from them

(1) See article IV.

"I think every large city should have a normal school to which it should lend its consummate care and should steer toward an absolute requirement that every new appointed teacher should be a graduate. I also think a system of night schools, especially of a practical Pratt Institute type, should be maintained."—*G. Stanley Hall, President Clark University.*

"I regard a training school for teachers as indispensable to the successful administration of a large city system."—*John W. Cook, President Illinois State Normal University.*

"In respect to the existence of a normal school in a large city, all I can say is that it is an absolute necessity. It is the only way in which we can secure properly qualified teachers."—*Edward Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.*

"In regard to my own views as to the importance of a normal school in a large city, I would say that such a school is very necessary to render efficient and progressive a school system. Persons possessing the requisite academic training but without professional knowledge or experience require from two to five years to learn how to do their work successfully. Of course the schools suffer while this practical knowledge is being acquired."—*Henry A. Wise, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.*

"All competent authorities agree in the opinion that a course of special training in the theory and practice of teaching should be insisted on as prerequisite to the occupation of teacher. In no department of school economy is there a greater waste of the public money than in the employment of untrained teachers.



in both subject matter and methods, has been proved by experience. The plan adopted in many cities of attempting the preparation of teachers in one, or, at most, two years of teaching in connection with the high schools, has not been successful. Not only does this plan involve an inevitable limitation of the liberal training which should be the basis for professional work, but the connection of the normal class with the city high school has robbed the future teachers of an *esprit-de-corps* and an enthusiasm for their work, which can be generated only under the influence of those who are devoted to this particular kind of instruction and who are entirely free from academic considerations in their efforts to formulate and carry out a satisfactory professional course.

Although the normal school should be distinct from the high schools of the city<sup>(2)</sup>, its pupils will come almost entirely from the graduates of

No doubt very talented young ladies with only a high school education often do well, but with an added normal training they would do much better. My own experience and observation in the direction and supervision of normal schools, of all the different descriptions known among us, and of city schools, lead me to conclude that, during the first five years of service the trained is worth about twice as much as the teacher who has no professional training. No city can afford to employ untrained teachers."—"City School Systems," by John D. Philbrick, p. 46.

(2) "A city normal school in a large city should be a distinct institution, connected neither with a city college, if there be one, nor with the city high schools. It should be open to such graduates of the city high schools as can bring a testimonial from the principal of their high school, that so far as he knows they have developed no physical, mental or moral peculiarities or characteristics that would unfit them for the work of elementary teaching. I lay some stress upon this point; for very often totally unfit persons are received into city training schools and eventually pass on to teaching positions; persons who are known to their former teachers to be lacking in the qualifications necessary for a successful teacher. It is well to stop such persons at the outset, and it may be done in the way I indicate."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

"The study of city normal schools leads me to the conclusion that the type comprised in the second category, mentioned on p. 42, is the normal type of city normal schools. This is the purely professional type. It does not pretend to give academic instruction. It receives only pupils of mature age, who have successfully passed through the high school course of instruction. For admission to the most advanced schools of this kind, the applicant must be at least eighteen years of age and must have completed a high school course of four years. In the state normal schools, as a general thing, in the east, at least, much the greater part of the course of instruction is devoted to academic studies. There being no distinct division between the academic and the professional instruction, both are carried on simultaneously. There are those who contend that this is the ideal plan of the normal school. The argument in favor of this plan is based mainly on the assumption that normal pupils cannot obtain a good education in non-professional schools, or, what amounts to the same thing, that a supply of normal pupils who have received the requisite general education cannot be had. But this assumption is not applicable to city systems in this country. The Cincinnati board of education can provide just as good education for pupils in a

the latter, and the two should be closely connected by their respective courses of study.

We recommend, therefore :

SECTION I.—THAT ADMISSION TO THE NORMAL SCHOOL<sup>(3)</sup> BE ON THE FOLLOWING CONDITIONS: (a) FOR GRADUATES OF A HIGH SCHOOL OF THIS CITY, EVIDENCE SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD OF THE SUCCESSFUL COMPLETION OF THE COURSE OF STUDY, TOGETHER WITH A RECOMMENDATION SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD FROM THE PRINCIPAL IN REGARD TO GENERAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE WORK OF TEACHING, AND A CERTIFICATE SIGNED BY A PHYSICIAN APPOINTED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION TO THE EFFECT THAT THE CANDIDATE IS IN GOOD HEALTH AND FREE FROM DISABLING PHYSICAL DEFECTS: (b) FOR THOSE WHO ARE NOT GRADUATES OF A HIGH SCHOOL OF THIS CITY, EVIDENCE SATISFACTORY TO THE EXAMINING BOARD OF THE COMPLETION OF A COURSE OF STUDY EQUAL TO THAT OF THE LOCAL HIGH SCHOOLS, TOGETHER WITH THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE EXAMINING BOARD IN REGARD TO GENERAL QUALIFICATIONS FOR THE WORK OF TEACHING AND SAID PHYSICIAN'S CERTIFICATE;

The plan heretofore followed of admitting to the normal school the graduates of the city high schools who have a certain high average in their

school organized as a high school as in a school organized as a normal school, and so can any other city. The normal school forms no exception to the general principle that in all institutions of education, both economy and efficiency are promoted by simplification of function. It is not strange, therefore, that the ideal type of the professional school for the training of teachers should be first developed in cities where candidates in sufficient numbers who have completed the high school course present themselves."—*"City School Systems,"* by John D. Philbrick, p. 45.

(3) "From 1877 to September, 1893, there was no school or department for the training of teachers in Chicago. High school graduates who passed the teacher's examination were assigned to schools as cadets to learn how to teach. When they succeeded as cadets they were assigned as teachers. In the report before referred to, Superintendent Lane says: 'As the number of inexperienced teachers increased, it was deemed best to give them some professional training in addition to their cadet practice.' In September, 1893, a training class for cadets was organized. Graduates of the four years' high school course were admitted after passing the required examination. The course covered half a year. In 1895 it was decided to make the course one year, and the class which graduated in June, 1896, received a year's instruction in the training school. The extension of the course to one year was a decided step in a forward direction, and demonstrated beyond all question that the idea of building up a professional training school for teachers had become firmly established. It is true it was not established without a struggle, but the objections had been met and had been overruled. The thanks of the people of Chicago are due to those who, with courage and persistence, contended for the idea of training for teachers. In connection with the idea of extending the course of the training school for cadets, there had grown up the opinion that the work should be broadened in

studies for the four years<sup>(4)</sup>, has many advantages, not the least of which is the necessary restriction thus imposed on the number of those who desire to prepare themselves as teachers. Your commission, however, thinks that this restriction is hardly fair or adequate.<sup>(5)</sup> On the one hand, it permits many to enter the normal school who, despite high scholarship, have not given proof that they will become successful members of the teaching force. On the other hand, it undoubtedly excludes many who, in the opinion of those best qualified by their professional standing and their personal knowledge to judge, are promising candidates for this work. If it did not seem probable that with an increasing number of high schools there will be a large number of applicants possessing the required scholarship from whom selection can be made for admission to the normal school, your commission would be inclined to recommend lowering this particular test. As it is, we favor the retention of the scholarship standard of admission, but recommend that in addition be required the approval of

many directions, and that it was about time to establish a great normal school for the city of Chicago. Just at this time came the proposition from the county commissioners of Cook County to turn over to the city of Chicago, on certain conditions, the land, building and equipment belonging to the Cook County Normal School. In January, 1896, by an agreement with the county commissioners of Cook County, the board of education assumed control of the normal school, and by this act advanced the school system of Chicago in lines of progress by many years."—*Committee on Normal Schools, in Annual Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1897.*

(4) "In 1891 there was no training school for teachers; and there were no qualifications demanded for admission to an examination other than that the candidate should be nineteen years old. Students in the second year of the high school course sometimes passed the examination. Those who were successful in the examination and had never taught were assigned to the various schools to practice teaching under the principals of such schools. These cadets were eligible to permanent appointments as soon as they could show ability to manage a room. In some instances they were assigned to permanent places within one month after being assigned as cadets. The following are the present requirements for a teacher's certificate: Applicants who have taught four years successfully, as shown by credentials, or those who are college graduates, may be examined. Graduates of our high schools, who have 90 per cent scholarship, or who pass an examination, must take one year's training in the normal school, and then cadet or practice successfully for four months in some school before they can be assigned to permanent positions."—*A. G. Lane, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Chicago.*

(5) "It should be said, however, that an element of weakness begins to show itself arising from the practice of allowing all the graduates of the high school desiring to become teachers to enter as pupil teachers simply because they are graduates, whether they possess the necessary physical and mental qualifications to become good teachers or not. My opinion is that we have pursued this course as long as it is wise or profitable."—*Report of the Fall River (Mass.) Public Schools, 1888.*

the principal of the respective school.<sup>(6)</sup> He, after consultation with his teachers, can pick out those who, with scholarship, have the qualities which will best fit them for successful teaching. The requirement of a certificate of health of all who desire appointment as teachers in the city, should be made, also, of all who seek admission to the training school. Heretofore, some pupils have been admitted whom even a cursory examination would have excluded as physically unfit for positions in our schools. It has seemed to your commission unkind and cruel to allow those thus handicapped to undergo the arduous training of the normal school, and to leave them to find out when too late, their incapacity for the teacher's duties. It is an act of mere justice alike to such candidates and to the city which supports the schools, to shut them out from a field that offers for them no promise of success.

SECTION 2.—THAT THE WORK OF EACH STUDENT IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE CAREFULLY SUPERVISED BY THE FACULTY, AND REGULAR EXAMINATIONS BE HELD AS A TEST OF SATISFACTORY PROGRESS; AND THAT AT ANY TIME DURING THE COURSE OF INSTRUCTION IT BE AT THE OPTION OF THE FACULTY TO DISMISS THE PUPIL WHO, HAVING RECEIVED ALL PROPER ENCOURAGEMENT AND AID FROM THE FACULTY, SHALL FAIL TO EXHIBIT SUFFICIENT ABILITY; AND THAT SUCH DISMISSAL BE WITHOUT APPEAL, EXCEPT TO THE EXAMINING BOARD, WHOSE DECISION SHALL BE FINAL;

To those acquainted with educational work, it may seem strange that any necessity should exist for recommending formally that the faculty of a normal school should supervise the work of each pupil and have the power of dismissal. Experience in Chicago has shown, however, that

(6) "The majority of our teachers in all but the high schools will naturally be supplied by the graduates of our own system. The certificate of our own schools should be a sufficient title, but I am strongly of the opinion that it has hitherto been based too exclusively upon intellectual tests. To pass an examination by no means establishes the qualification to act as the mental and moral guardian of a class of children. Over and over again, during the past twenty years have students of mine been admitted to the teaching force when I have known them to be absolutely unfit for such a trust. They have contrived to pass an examination and that is all. No inquiry has been made concerning the moral atmosphere likely to exist in the school rooms under their charge. Perhaps a thousand of my students altogether have thus become teachers in the primary and grammar grades, and my opinion for their fitness in the work has not once been asked. Yet those of us who come into intimate personal contact (during the last year or two years of the high school work) with these young

owing to the large number of those desiring to prepare themselves for teaching and the great pressure toward ultimate appointment as teachers of any that have been admitted to the normal school, undue influences have been used to retain pupils in that school despite their admitted incapacity. This irregularity has been due partly to a feeling that some leniency might be shown those who have made in many cases great sacrifices to gain a professional training. We suggest that, where possible, this question be settled early in the school course, and the only method of satisfactorily settling it is by means of regular examinations.<sup>(7)</sup> The additional recommendation that the faculty of the school be given the right to determine the pupil's ability and scholarship, might seem also unnecessary, for such power is the universal privilege of teaching bodies. Yet it is a fact that the influences just described have secured the diploma of the Chicago Normal School for many pupils, from whom the honest judgment of the faculty would have withheld it. This statement should not be made lightly, but your commission has been forced to conclude that such has been the case not infrequently. While the faculty should be given large power in this particular, we think it well that on occasion arising, their action should be reviewed by the examining board.

### SECTION 3.—THAT THE COURSE OF STUDY BE OF NOT LESS THAN TWO FULL YEARS;<sup>(8)</sup>

Advance in the requirements made of candidates for teaching positions in Chicago has been constant, and along with these requirements the opportunities for preparation have increased. We believe that the Chicago Normal School has been efficiently carried on. Its graduates have brought

women, are the only ones who can possibly know whether they are fit persons to teach children. It seems to me that a certificate of character or general fitness, from those in the direct charge of students during the last year or two of their school life, should be made an absolute requirement for appointment, quite independent of their ability to pass successfully an examination."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(7) "Pupils are examined from time to time during their progress through the classes, and those deemed unfit to pursue the course to the end are dropped. This is done by the head-master with the concurrence of the superintendent and the board of supervisors, who are kept informed by the head-master concerning the standing of the pupils. The last sifting comes at graduation; only those are graduated who give promise of becoming fairly good teachers."—*Edwin P. Seaver, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass.*

"If it appears on acquaintance that a serious mistake has been made in estimating any of these elements, then, as soon as the mistake is fairly apparent and is probably a permanent condition, the pupil should be requested to withdraw

a new spirit of enthusiasm and greater adaptability to conditions into the teaching force of the city. It is impossible, however, to give in one year adequate professional training. Educational experience and opinion point unanimously to the advisability of a two years' course of study. The number of applicants for admission to the normal school at present and the number of its graduates have made it feasible to require an additional year of training, without any resulting disadvantage. Your commission urges, therefore, that as soon as possible this change be made in the Chicago Normal School.<sup>(8)</sup>

from the work. This is not a case where the wheat and the tares should grow together till the harvest at graduation day or the examination preceding it. With such a foundation continually maintained, it is the duty of the school to conquer success for each pupil."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 15.

(8) "The ideal training course is one of two years length."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 13.

"The course of study in a city training school should be at least two years in length, and strictly professional in character. By this, I mean that no time or energy should be spent in repairing deficiencies of scholarship—there should be no deficiencies of scholarship to repair. For the first year of the course, two-thirds of the time should be spent in presenting to the pupils the elementary school subjects, in what might be called their pedagogic form; that their organization and analysis as subject matter, the inner connection of their various parts should be made plain, as well as their interdependencies and mutual relationships. This kind of instruction is not, as a rule, given in this country, because the time that should be devoted to it is usually given to teaching over again, and for the third or fourth time the subject matter itself of the elementary school curriculum. The other third of the first should be spent in the study of psychology and its applications to teaching by the most modern methods of instruction. The second year of the course should include instruction in the history of education, in the principles (or as it is sometimes called, the philosophy) of education, in school organization and management, and in practical educational work under competent supervision and criticism. Under the latter head I include both observation of good teaching and the writing of reports thereon; making of ideal lesson plans and the discussion thereof; and the conduct of actual class exercises under supervision."—*Nicholas Murray Butler*, *Columbia University*.

(9) "I think the course should not be less than two years, and during the second year at least one-half the time of the pupil should be spent in practice work under most critical and careful observation. I do not understand that I am asked to present a course of study for a normal school, but I may say in general that it should be of such a character in the first place as will give one a strong propulsion toward child study and a thorough professional conscientiousness. In the second place, it should involve a thorough-going examination of the course of study, and a careful and extended discussion of method. And in the third place, it should indicate not less than half a year of practice work, a portion of the day being spent in that aspect of the work and the remaining portion in critical studies of the faults of presentation and the theories neces-



SECTION 4.—THAT THE CURRICULUM BE PLANNED TO PREPARE ITS GRADUATES TO GIVE INSTRUCTION IN ALL THE STUDIES INCLUDED IN THE COURSE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT LARGER OPPORTUNITIES BE AFFORDED, BOTH FOR OBSERVATION AND PRACTICE TEACHING;

With this lengthening of the course of study, we believe that the curriculum of the normal school, if carefully correlated with that of the secondary schools, can afford full preparation for instruction in all the branches taught in the primary and the grammar grades.<sup>(10)</sup> A con-

sary to correct such faults. I do not regard one year as long enough time for the professional preparation of even university graduates. There is no difficulty at all in the matter, as it seems to me, since the positions in the city are so eagerly sought that candidates are willing to do whatever is required of them that is in any way reasonable, to fit themselves for such positions, if they can be assured of the position after the preparation is completed.”—*John W. Cook, President Illinois State Normal University.*

“The remaining 48 were held to profit by the two years’ course of instruction so wisely provided by the honorable board of trustees. The benefits of this extension of time for training cannot fail to redound to the permanent advantage of the school children under the influence of these young teachers, an advantage so tangible and measurable that it cannot fail to be seen to abundantly justify the measure which produced it. The teacher more than another needs sound and broad scholarship. He, by the long and deliberate process of assimilation, needs to have made quite his own a large body of knowledge related and arranged to serve as the educating and understanding influence by which children are to be taught and directed. By this extension of time for training, we expect, with a certainty of fulfillment, a broader culture for our pupils, richer experiences and larger sympathies, all counting for a stronger development of character, for finer and surer comprehension of the teacher’s place and work, and for intelligent and helpful meeting of the child’s legitimate demand to be well equipped for a successful and honorable career.”—*Ida Gilbert Myers, Principal Normal School, Washington, D. C.—Report of the Board of Trustees of Public Schools of the District of Columbia, 1897.*

(10) “The normal school, as here outlined, cannot prepare teachers for secondary work.

“These considerations and others are the occasion of a growing conviction, widespread in this land, that secondary teachers should be trained for their work even more carefully than elementary teachers are trained. This conviction is manifested in the efforts to secure normal schools adapted to training teachers for secondary schools, notably in Massachusetts and New York, and in the numerous professorships of pedagogy established in rapidly increasing numbers in our colleges and universities. The training of teachers for secondary schools is in several essential respects the same as that for teachers for elementary schools. Both demand scholarship, theory and practice. The degree of scholarship required for secondary teaching is by common consent fixed at a college education. No one—with rare exceptions—should be allowed to teach in a high school who has not this fundamental preparation.”—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 17.*

“At some point in this training school course the students should be divided into groups, according to their natural capacity or tastes, and prepared especially to undertake the work of either the lower or the upper grades of an elementary school. Teachers often suffer personal embarrassment and distress, and the com-

siderable extension of the time devoted to studies recently introduced into the Chicago system will gradually do away to a great extent with the necessity for special teachers. German, Latin, music, drawing and gymnastics can be taught much more satisfactorily by the teacher of the grade, and such an arrangement would permit a considerable reduction in the expense of instruction. When constructive work of different kinds, from the work of the kindergarten to the manual training and domestic economy of the upper grades, has become an integral part of the course of study, the same statement will be true, we believe, in regard to this branch. With the larger facilities afforded by more manual training schools, with a fuller curriculum in these subjects and with special training in a two years' normal course, the graduates of the latter school should be competent to do all the constructive teaching necessary in the grades.

Greater emphasis should be put also on kindergarten training in the normal school, and an optional course should be added for those who desire to prepare themselves for this work.<sup>(11)</sup> The city should offer all needed facilities in preparation for any teaching below the grade of the secondary schools.

The Chicago Normal School, with only a one year's course, has thus far suffered from the comparatively slight attention that could be given to

munity often suffers great disadvantage, because there is no opportunity in the training school course to specialize somewhat in the preparation for schoolroom work. While, of course, all teaching is one and the same, yet any experienced school supervisor will confirm the statement that different qualities both of attainment and temperament are needed for success with children from six to ten years of age."—*Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University.*

(11) "But the influence of the kindergarten is felt in still another direction. The normal school stands for what is established and thus tends toward conservatism. But because of this and the necessity of formulating its work, its methods tend to become fixed and formal, and thus to bring reproach on normal school work. The presence of a kindergarten, the whole spirit of which is spontaneity, naturalness and free self-expression, is a valuable antidote to this. In the kindergarten the child is superior to the system; in the school the individual must too often yield to it. The emphasis the kindergarten places on the individual in his social and ethical relations is of great value to the future teacher in helping her to see her pupils as individuals when she is obliged to emphasize class instruction. The further emphasis the kindergarten places on sympathetic relations between teacher and pupil will serve as an ideal when she is tempted to adapt the arbitrary modes of government the school sometimes seems to require.

"The modern movement of child-study is another into which the normal student should be initiated. But for this, also, the kindergarten is invaluable. The purpose of the child-study movement is the better understanding of the child for the purpose of directing his development more intelligently. This is likewise the purpose of the kindergarten."—*Nina C. Vandewalker, in Kindergarten Magazine, March, 1898.*

observation work and practice teaching.<sup>(12)</sup> The extension of the course to two years will more than double in these particulars the efficiency of the school. Compared with some of the other large cities of the country, Chicago has been deficient in the preparation of teachers, and although steady progress has been made in recent years, much that is possible in this direction remains to be done. Our city, for reasons already suggested, is especially in need of teachers prepared to meet the peculiar conditions surrounding our school system. No more effective steps toward this can be made than by increasing the opportunities for observation work<sup>(13)</sup> both in immediate connection with the normal school and so far as possible in schools located in widely varying sections of the city.<sup>(14)</sup> If

(12) "In one important respect, the normal school has peculiar advantages, namely, in the provision for model schools of practice. Some of the city normal schools, however, and particularly the training schools for teachers, are not so well furnished with this means of training as could be desired, the school set apart for this purpose comprising in too many cases only the primary grade or some lower grammar class in addition. They ought also to comprise pupils of each sex. Even so important a normal school as that of Philadelphia has only classes of girls in the grammar grade of its school of practice. Abundant proof of the excellence and success of schools of practice connected with city normal schools is afforded by the fact that parents are very generally anxious to secure places in them for their children."—*City School Systems*, by John D. Philbrick, p. 44.

(13) "A good deal of experience in connection with training teachers, both in city training schools and in connection with our training class for college graduates here in Brookline, which has been in operation for three years, convinces me that the chief element in training is actual contact with and the performance of work in the school room, so that your plan for larger facilities for observation and practice is eminently sound. While theory is necessary, it receives its chief value in connection with its indicated application in the school room. This remark applies to all theory suggested by the history of education and the advanced views of educational reformers. They are all to be interpreted in the school room and their value or lack of value proven."—S. T. Dutton, *Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Mass.*

"The normal schools incline to the smallest proportion for practice teaching, the city schools to the largest. It should be borne in mind, however, that training schools are a close continuation, usually, of high schools, and that the high school courses give a more uniform and probably adequate preparation than the students entering normal training schools have usually had. Their facilities for practice teaching are much greater than normal schools can secure, and for this reason, also, practice is made relatively more important."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 5.

(14) "The practice school should not be a small school in a limited region. With the children of every European nationality in Chicago's public schools, the student teachers, as well as the faculty of the normal school, should have wider experience than teachers over children living in a small part of Englewood. There should be a practice school in the Bohemian, in the Italian, in the Swedish and in the Polish districts as well as in an American speaking locality."—*A Chicago Superintendent*.

"It is important to add, however, that in the judgment of your committee not less than half of the time spent under training of the apprentice teacher should

this is true in the work of observation, it is equally true in regard to practice teaching, so necessary to pupils in the normal school. Your commission believes that this part of the normal school instruction also can be advantageously carried on in different school districts at a slight increase in expense.

SECTION 5.—THAT ONE ACADEMIC STUDY AT LEAST BE PURSUED BY EACH PUPIL OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR THE PURPOSE OF GENERAL CULTURE;

The graduates of our city high schools when they begin professional training should be well equipped in general education and acquaintance with the subjects that they will be required to teach. The normal school of a large community, unlike similar institutions supported in rural districts of the state, can presuppose a fairly adequate knowledge and culture on the part of the candidates for admission. Its course should, therefore, be distinctly professional.<sup>(15)</sup> Nevertheless, a source of danger lies in the constant devotion to study from the point of view only of the future teacher and in continuous emphasis on method rather than matter. Thus the pupils of the normal school may in two years lose something of the desire for

be given to observation and practice, and that this practice in its conditions should be as similar as possible to the work she will later be required to do independently."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 5.

(15) "If training schools are to be distinguished from other secondary schools, they must do a work not done in other schools. So far as they teach common branches of study they are doing what other schools are doing, and have small excuse for existence; but it may be granted that methods can be practically taught only as to subjects, that the study done in professional schools may so treat of the subjects of study, not as objects to be acquired, but as objects to be presented, that their treatment shall be wholly professional. One who is to treat a subject needs to know it as a whole made up of related and subordinate parts, and hence must study it by method that will give this knowledge. It is not necessary to press the argument that many pupils enter normal and training schools with such slight preparation as to require instruction in academic subjects. The college, with a preparatory department, is, as a rule, an institution of distinctly lower grade than one without such a department. Academy work of the normal schools that is in the nature of preparation for professional work, lowers the standard and perhaps the usefulness of such a school; but academic work done as a means of illustrating or enforcing professional truth has its place in a professional school as in effect a part of the professional work. Professional study differs widely from academic study. In the one a science is studied in relation to the studying mind; in the other, in reference to its principles and applications. The aim of one kind of study is power to apply; of the other, power to present. The tendency of the one is to bring the learner into sympathy with the natural world; of the other, with the child world. How much broader becomes the teacher who takes both the academic and the professional view! He who learns that he may know, and he who learns that he may teach, are standing in quite different mental attitudes. One works for knowledge of subject matter; the other, that his knowledge may have due organization, that he may bring to consciousness the apperceiving ideas by means of which matter and method may be suitably conjoined."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 3.

broader attainment, without which they are not qualified to enter the schools as teachers.<sup>(16)</sup> In order to obviate this danger, and at the same time to give opportunity in the normal school for some slight specialization on the part of each pupil, we recommend that an option be allowed of different academic studies; and that each pupil be required to pursue one such study through the two years of normal work. If the departmental idea, suggested elsewhere, is to spread, as seems likely, at least in the higher grades, the recommendation just made will be of decided advantage to the future teacher.

SECTION 6.—THAT THE GRADUATES OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL BE SEVERALLY UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF SOME MEMBER OF THE FACULTY, ACTING WITH THE ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT AND THE PRINCIPAL OF THE SCHOOL, FOR ONE YEAR AFTER THE FIRST ASSIGNMENT OF THE GRADUATES AS TEACHERS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The principle has been already laid down that no one on entering the Chicago system should receive permanent appointment. A probation should be required of at least two years, and only on the successful completion of this period should the teacher receive a permanent certificate. These two years are recognized as the most difficult and important in the

(16) "The greatest problem for the faculty of the normal school to solve is this: How can the students be so trained that their ideal of education will be a developing one, and not be dwarfed and thrown into the shade by methods and devices in teaching? The concentration of thought and activity for one or two years on teaching itself, draws the normal students themselves so completely away from academic work that the majority do not resume it after graduating from the normal school. While the Chicago Normal School should not do the work of the elementary and secondary schools with its student teachers as the state normal universities are obliged to, yet (though almost alone in my belief), I am confident that the normal students should while in that school take one advanced study outside of pedagogy, psychology and child study."—*A Chicago Superintendent*.

"Most fundamental and important of the professional studies which ought to be pursued by one intending to teach, is psychology. This study should be pursued at two periods of the training school course, the beginning and the end, and its principles should be appealed to daily when not formally studied. The method of study should be more deductive than inductive. The terminology should be learned from a text-book and significance given to the terms by introspection, observation and analysis. Power of introspection should be gained, guidance of observation should be given and confirmation of psychological principles should be sought on every hand. The habit of thinking analytically and psychologically should be formed by every teacher. At the close of the course a more profound and more completely inductive study of physiological psychology should be made. In this way, a tendency to investigate should be encouraged or created."—*Committee of Fifteen*, p. 6.



teacher's career, and every effort should be made to aid the teachers in their early work. Sympathetic direction has been given the new teachers by their more experienced comrades and the principals and superintendents. Such assistance, however, is perforce limited in amount, and during the first critical weeks and months of this probation, those in immediate charge of the new teachers are hampered by a lack of previous knowledge of them. These beginners have often worked out their own problems with unnecessary difficulty, or failed in them before the supervising force from the principal up has felt able to give helpful criticism and advice. Your commission believes that the teachers of the normal school, who under the plan proposed will have followed carefully for two years the training of the candidates, might offer material assistance at this juncture, and that their knowledge of the personality of the new teachers would supplement in a most valuable way the observations and impressions of the principals and the assistant superintendents. The responsibility of following up in this way the work of the normal school graduates might well be assigned to the members of the faculty, who have been severally brought by their own work into intimate acquaintance with them. This proposal might perhaps be criticised as likely to impair the work of the teacher in the normal school itself. Such a criticism would prove, however, we consider, superficial and ill-founded. If there is anything especially important in a normal school, it is a definite knowledge on the part of the faculty of the work actually done in the elementary schools, and the time and effort thus demanded of the faculty of the normal school in the supervision of its graduates, would redound directly to the benefit not only of the graduates, but of the school itself.

SECTION 7.—THAT ADDITIONAL BUILDINGS BE ERECTED FOR THE USE OF THE NORMAL SCHOOL, INCLUDING AT LEAST ONE FOR THE NORMAL SCHOOL ITSELF AND ONE FOR ITS PRACTICE SCHOOL;

Initiatory steps have already been taken toward providing additional accommodations at the normal school, but action seems to have been unduly delayed for various reasons. The school, in the judgment of your commission, is in urgent need of additional buildings, including at least a general one for recitation, laboratory, and library purposes of the school; another, with much larger provisions, for the model school, and as soon as seems advisable, one also for museum purposes.



SECTION 8.—THAT AN INVESTIGATION BE MADE TO DETERMINE WHETHER, IN VIEW OF THE GROWTH OF THE CITY, IT MIGHT BE ADVANTAGEOUS TO ESTABLISH, INSTEAD OF ONE, THREE NORMAL SCHOOLS UNDER ONE RESPONSIBLE HEAD.<sup>(17)</sup>

Chicago has always found it difficult to establish one central institution of any kind for school purposes. The large area included within our limits, and the peculiar division of the city into rather sharply defined sections, offer grave difficulties in selecting any particular site.<sup>(18)</sup> The location of the present normal school seems eminently disadvantageous. This question so far as it affects the present school was settled in advance by the transference of the school by Cook county to the city with the special provision that it be retained on its present site. Under these circumstances it may be advisable to provide only for a certain differentiation in the functions of the normal school. The need already indicated for more observation and practice work in connection with normal training, might be met by establishing one or more branch schools under the direction of the principal and faculty of the Chicago Normal School; these may perhaps become ultimately distinct schools. This arrangement would not only give the graduates a much needed knowledge of local<sup>(19)</sup> conditions, but

(17) "In addition to her advanced methods of instruction, the pupil teacher needs to acquire the ability to keep a reasonable number of children properly employed at their seats. To this end, part of her practical work should be the management of a room, the membership of which approximates that of an ordinary school room. Placing a normal school at a point central to the divisions of our city, or establishing such a school on the North Side and another on the West Side would make such practice work possible."—*Ella F. Young Club*.

(18) This statement should not be construed against the establishment of a central commercial school, open to boys of high school age, since these can attend the sessions in the business district with greater safety and less inconvenience than the young women, who form so large a proportion of the pupils at the normal school.

(19) "There is a constantly increasing demand for trained teachers. This demand is more marked in the cities than in the country. A very large proportion of the graduates of state normal schools find employment in the city schools; but the supply from this source is inadequate. Hence the city boards of a considerable number of the larger cities have made provisions more or less extensive, for the professional training of teachers for the schools under their charge. The supplementing of the supply from the state normal schools has not been the sole motive for making this provision. Another argument in its favor is found in the fact of the increased facility thus afforded to home talent for professional preparation. And, besides, it is generally believed that *home trained teachers may be better adapted for the service to which they are destined*. The establishment of city normal schools is by no means a new idea in our educational economy. It appears that the legal provisions for the first city normal school antedates by about twenty years the establishment of the

would also make it easier for pupils in various parts of the city to attend a part of the normal school course.<sup>(20)</sup>

first state normal school. The city of Philadelphia took the lead in this matter. In the 'Act to provide for the education of children at the public expense within the city and county of Philadelphia,' passed in 1818, it was made the duty of the controllers who were intrusted with the administration of the schools, 'to establish a *model school*, in order to qualify teachers for the secondary schools and for schools in other parts of the state.'—"City School Systems," by John D. Philbrick, p. 41.

(20) "It is unfortunate that this school is located so far from the part of the city reached by traveling on only one line of street cars, or elevated trains, or suburban trains. Too much time and nervous energy are expended by the students in going to and from the school daily. Notwithstanding the value of the property acquired in Englewood, I believe a mistake was made when the city normal school was located where it now is. When the board of education erects a building for its own use, that is, a building containing rooms for the board, the superintendent's department and the business department, there should be rooms for teachers' meetings and for the accommodation of the normal classes in the theoretical and academic work. One-half of the classes should meet in the morning and one-half in the afternoon. By the division of the normal classes into morning and afternoon classes and an alteration of the time so that one-half of the year a class would attend mornings and during the other half would attend afternoons, these practice schools would not only have student teachers in them throughout the entire day, but the student teachers would have their work under varied conditions as to time and pupils. In addition to that, the student teachers would acquire power in teaching classes under conditions similar to that of those in the schools in which they will eventually be employed."—*A Chicago Superintendent*.

Your Commission respectfully recommends:

SECTION 1.—THAT THE TEACHING OF THE SPECIAL SUBJECTS IN THE COURSE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS BE ENCOURAGED, AND EFFORTS BE MADE TO CORRELATE THEM MORE CLOSELY WITH THE OTHER STUDIES OF THE COURSE;

SECTION 2.—THAT DRAWING, MUSIC AND PHYSICAL CULTURE BE CONSIDERED PROPER STUDIES FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT INSTRUCTION BE GIVEN IN THEM ACCORDING TO SUITABLE PROVISIONS;

SECTION 3.—(a) THAT CONSTRUCTIVE WORK OF SOME FORM BE GRADUALLY INTRODUCED INTO EACH GRADE OF EVERY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL<sup>(1)</sup>; AND THAT BELOW THE SEVENTH GRADE THIS TAKE THE SAME FORM FOR BOYS AND GIRLS;

(b) THAT IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES THE WORK BE DIFFERENTIATED, TAKING FOR THE PRESENT THE FORM OF WOODWORK FOR BOYS AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY FOR GIRLS;

(c) THAT FACILITIES FOR SUCH INSTRUCTION IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES BE PROVIDED AS RAPIDLY AS POSSIBLE, WITH DUE REFERENCE TO ECONOMY IN THE MATTER BOTH OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL;

SECTION 4.—THAT THE TEACHING OF THESE SUBJECTS BE CONDUCTED AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE BY THE REGULAR TEACHERS.

We do not feel called upon to present at length arguments in favor of various subjects introduced during recent years into the common school curriculum. The widespread tendency to make the course of

(1) "The introduction of hand work into all grades is desirable; but we would recommend that facilities for conducting this work be provided at each and every school. All material required for seat work, sense training, or other educational purposes, should be furnished by the board of education. The introduction of new subjects or new methods should not depend upon the generosity or pecuniary resources of the teacher. The hand work should be the same for boys and girls

study fuller and richer, has been already mentioned.<sup>(2)</sup> It has resulted in the teaching of German and Latin and algebra in the higher grades; of music<sup>(3)</sup> and drawing and physical culture throughout the elementary schools; in the establishment of the kindergarten as an integral part of

until they reach the seventh grade, when some differentiation may be introduced."—*Ella F. Young Club*.

"We do not attempt to teach trades in our public schools any more than we attempt to make lawyers or doctors; but the knowledge obtained in the manual training exercises of the general school course will prove beneficial not only to mechanics but to professional men and employers. This knowledge makes a bond of sympathy between employer and employe, and will do much toward closing the gap between labor and capital. This addition to our course of study assists not only in preparing bread winners but in preparing citizens useful to society and the world."—*James A. Forshay, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Cal.—N. E. A. Proceedings, 1897, p. 584.*

"But finally, constructive work has found most favor as a moral agency. In all the social elements of Chicago it has become a permanent and reliable feature. And, furthermore, in the vacation schools among the poorest and most hardened classes of children, it is the only means of controlling and at the same time checking the evil instincts of criminal children. Manual constructive work is, therefore, one of the most powerful means for the developing and educating of the young, and should be given immediately a large place in every elementary school. And particularly should this be the case in countries where the uncounted majority of children receive their whole training and then pass out of school into a life of mechanical labor, without the slightest effort being made to develop their nerves and muscles for the work they are called to perform."—*Frederick Eby, in Education, April, 1898.*

"I claim as an important argument in manual training, that every step in hand culture involves a corresponding increase in brain culture—the distinctive work of the public school. In what particular respect is hand work thus helpful to the mind? Our perceptive powers are trained by causing any sense in a state of attention to be directed upon any object long enough to pass in review all its parts. Manipulation of wood with a tool certainly does this for the sense of sight and touch. If the act be frequent, as it must be in hand work, the sense of perception becomes familiar, and is readily recalled by the retentive faculty. Rapid interpretations are a natural result. Clear perceptions evidently aid distinct conceptions, and the memory becomes a storehouse for the kind of facts thus obtained. Again, by a course of judicious instruction in wood working, there would be formed a habit of orderly progress, from one step to the next—for no good carpenter proceeds haphazard; and such a habit can be used in other directions. We as teachers should like to see it applied in arithmetic, grammar and indeed in all studies."—*Ray Greene Huling, in Education, September, 1883.*

(2) See Article V.

(3) "The tendency to make music in the school chiefly a matter of musical notation with its arbitrary signs and technical difficulties, degrades the subject from its proper position. The main emphasis should be given to the culture of the feelings, the development of the musical sense and awakening of the soul to the beauty and grandeur of harmony, in order that the moral nature may be quickened and strengthened. There are plenty of other exercises that appeal simply to the intellect, as mathematics, mechanical drawing, and certain phases of geography and history. Music finds its truest justification in the schools only as it supplies the highest aesthetic training which has been so sadly lacking. It may be said, incidentally, that music is an aid to all other school

the school system<sup>(4)</sup>, and is bringing about the very general introduction of manual training and domestic economy in our larger cities. This tendency is not to be resisted. What the people need and desire will in the end always determine the arrangement of the course of study.<sup>(5)</sup> The teaching of German in the Chicago schools is not the result of any theoretical view on the part of experts as to its value in the course. It came as the inevitable result of public demand, and it will remain just so long as such demand continues. Apart from the fact that the teaching of another language, preferably one with a grammatical structure different from that of the English and with a rich literature, is justified on educational grounds, we have no hesitation in saying that the demand for German instruction from German-born citizens is both natural and to be welcomed. The resident of foreign birth who, making this country the home of his adoption, is willing that his children should grow up without recognition of the natural ties binding them to relatives in the old home, lacks one of the elements which go to make good citizenship. At the same time, the essential purpose of the American school system is to form American citizens, and all proper means should be employed to make of all children in our public schools, particularly those of foreign descent, men and women whose hearts are centered in our life. The plan followed in some cities of affording instruction in German, for example, only in particular districts, tends to concentrate German residents in these sec-

ercises, inasmuch as it gives pleasure and zest and produces a more social atmosphere. But the principal aim, as we have intimated, should be to promote rhythm, harmony, and to reach the highest spiritual nature."—*S. T. Dutton, Superintendent Public Schools, Brookline, Mass.*

(4) "Fitting the child to be a definite, efficient force in society is the end of education by the state. This involves the training of all his powers after the Froebelian notion. It also involves the cultivation of a sympathetic comprehension of the needs and conditions of society. This point has been made clear by Dr. Harris, in the report of the Committee of Fifteen. The superiority of the kindergarten over the ordinary primary school does not consist in the character of the tools used, the gifts, the occupation, the circle on the floor, but of the fact that it is an institution of which the child is an integral part. He is, while in the kindergarten, living a life to him as real as the life which his father leads, or you or I. He is a member of a community in which all have a part, and which goes through seriously the regular business, amusements and duties of life, which is but a miniature of the great world, and by this actual living he is fitted to be a potent factor in society. The child is entitled to a real daily life, and he whose life is spent in absent contemplation of the past or in abstract study of arts that men use in real life, with direct contact with that life, is robbed of his right, while society is robbed of a trained citizen. This real and vital connection between the processes of education and the civilization into which the child is growing, is the aim of the new education."—*Charles B. Gilbert, Superintendent, Public Schools, Newark, N. J., in Education, December, 1898.*

(5) See Article III.

tions, and thus becomes a distinct disadvantage alike to them and to the community.<sup>(6)</sup> Such instruction, if given at all, should be offered in all the schools where there is a demand, thus giving the children of foreign and native descent the readiest opportunity of mingling in the same schools.<sup>(7)</sup> If the experience of other cities is any criterion, the demand for instruction in their own language on the part of foreign-born citizens will gradually diminish, and the question of giving instruction in German will be determined by educational considerations alone.<sup>(8)</sup> The steady growth of the commercial spirit and the admitted need of careful training for business pursuits may prove important factors in the retention of German in the course of study, as well as in the introduction of Spanish. In the case of Spanish, there are abundant signs throughout the country that in answer to public recognition of its importance, instruction in this subject will be included in some grade of the public school system at an early day.

The teaching of Latin through one or two years of the elementary schools has been a decided advantage, not only for those who continue the study later, but for the great mass of children in the seventh and eighth grades who are finding in it an excellent substitute for the more formal instruction in English grammar.

The board of education has wisely introduced nature study into the elementary schools, but no adequate effort has yet been made to plan a consistent course in this subject through the earlier grades. For this reason the time given to nature study has seemed to many teachers largely wasted. Yet your commission believes that with more efficient instruction, such as is possible when greater emphasis is placed on this subject in the normal school, and a coherent and well outlined course for the guidance of teachers, nature study both in the simple form required in the first grades and in the more systematic treatment of the later years of the elementary school will prove of great interest and value.

(6) Cincinnati, for example, as has been pointed out by Dr. Harris, introduced German principally in those schools located in the sections of the city most largely inhabited by foreign-born residents. This method has resulted in making the attendance in those schools almost exclusively of children of German parentage, who are thus cut off from the advantages of association with English-speaking children.

(7) The best example of this is offered in St. Louis, where German, as long as it was retained in the school curriculum, was taught as here suggested.

(8) This has been the case in St. Louis, where the plan of instruction just mentioned led to a rapid assimilation of the foreign element, with a natural cessation of the demand for German teaching.



Drawing, music<sup>(9)</sup>, and physical culture have been pursued for some years in our Chicago schools, and these studies have justified themselves in the course. Such criticism as has been made against them does not invalidate them as proper subjects for elementary work, but points, rather, to the necessity for reform in the method of supervision and of teaching.<sup>(10)</sup> The most important suggestions made to your commission in regard to special subjects concerned the instruction in manual training and domestic economy.<sup>(11)</sup> It has recently been reported from Germany that constructive work is being taken out of the schools. But your commission believes that it should be given at least a cordial and thorough trial. Experience alone can demonstrate its success or failure, its degree of usefulness or its exact place in the curriculum. The experiment is well worth making. The experience of other American cities is strongly in favor of extending the school curriculum in these lines.<sup>(12)</sup> Much has already been done in the elementary schools in manual training, and the experiments in domestic science, made possible through private gifts, have led to an appropriation by the Chicago board of education for this purpose. We believe that much more attention should be given these branches, and that "constructive work" should find a place in each grade of the elementary school.<sup>(13)</sup> Such subjects, however, must be carefully related with the

(9) "The highest results cannot be reached, especially with children who do not hear good music outside of the school, unless the instructor or other persons interested provide for the occasional execution of good music in the school room. This is consistent with the idea consistently stated that the development of the musical sense and the ability to enjoy music is not second in importance to the power to execute, considered in its general application, inasmuch as, while few will attain such skill in the rendition of music, it is desirable that here in America, as in Germany, all the people become lovers of music."—S. T. Dutton, *Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Mass.*

(10) See Article III, Section 3, and Article VIII, Section 4.

(11) "We heartily endorse all efforts for the widening of the scope of opportunity for self-expression on the part of the child. To this end, we advise the more general introduction of constructive training in all grades."—*The George Howland Club.*

(12) Boston and Washington furnish full proof of this statement.

(13) "The influence of the manual training idea is felt throughout the length and breadth of the United States, and is spoken of by nearly all educators as one of the most important factors in future plans of education. Those who have had the good fortune to keep in touch with the effect of manual training on the pupil's mind will readily see the importance of this branch of training which is practically the work of the kindergarten carried into the upper grade school."—*Frederick Newton Williams, Kindergarten Magazine, April, 1898.*

"I regard the introduction of manual training into this district as an imperative necessity. So many causes operate here to keep boys from school that the attraction of manual training would count for more than in other districts. With

other studies of the course, in the primary and grammar grades, to secure an unbroken sequence from the kindergarten. Indeed, in the kindergarten a training of the senses may be found which is a basis for all later instruction in the aesthetic and industrial arts<sup>(14)</sup>; and with the general establishment of kindergartens, no course of study can be considered coherent and unified that does not offer a natural progress along these lines from the fourth or fifth year of the child's life at least to the end of the elementary school.

While making these recommendations for an expansion of the school curriculum, that involves a considerable increase in expense, your commission holds that greater care may be exercised in regard to the cost of equipment and instruction. The equipment, for example, may be much more simple and less expensive than has heretofore been the rule. It has been demonstrated to us, for example, that adequate provision can be made for work in manual training at a considerably less cost per capita than at present; similar economy can be exercised to advantage in the establishment of domestic science rooms. The "constructive work" in the lower grades need cost little for appliances and almost nothing for material. Economy along this line, however, will not reduce the cost of these branches within the scope of what the public is willing to pay, unless the

its aid, the large percentage of truancy could be reduced to a minimum and the increase of criminals checked. Statistics of this district prove that the boys who complete the grammar schools become self-supporting respectable citizens."  
—*A Chicago Principal.*

(14) "I wish to suggest in connection with this article a general principle which I think serves as a general caption for any detailed scheme covering the subjects of physical, aesthetic and manual training, and it is this, that the kindergarten contains the germs of all higher training in its nature study, its free play, its songs, its occupation and its social atmosphere. Everything which is begun in the kindergarten should be continued, its form changing according as the child life merges into the maturer life of the youth, the various activities named above gradually taking more serious form and becoming the studies of the elementary school. This gradual shading off and change without permitting any break, constitutes the great problem in modern elementary teaching. It requires on the part of all teachers on the force, from the kindergarten to the high school a grasp of the whole course of study and some knowledge of the several adaptations required for the several nascent periods through which the child passes. School supervision through the superintendent and his assistants only reaches a professional standard when it secures for all teachers a sense of proportion and perspective as regards the whole course of study, and a skillful adaptation of means to end at the particular point in the child's life where the teaching is given with special reference to securing spontaneity, interest and the best possible endeavor."—*S. T. Dutton, Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Mass.*

expense of instruction be likewise diminished. For this reason, as well as for the sake of the efficiency in the instruction itself, we believe that these studies, as well as the aesthetic arts and physical culture should be taught eventually by the regular teachers.<sup>(15)</sup>

In line with the considerations mentioned, we recommend, further :

SECTION 2.—THAT DRAWING, MUSIC AND PHYSICAL CULTURE BE CONSIDERED PROPER STUDIES FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, AND THAT INSTRUCTION BE GIVEN IN THEM ACCORDING TO SUITABLE PROVISIONS;

These studies have now a recognized place in the school course, and the teaching of them is supported by those best acquainted with the needs of the city<sup>(16)</sup>, as well as by the general sentiment of educators throughout the country.<sup>(17)</sup>

SECTION 3.—(a) THAT CONSTRUCTIVE WORK OF SOME FORM BE GRADUALLY INTRODUCED INTO EACH GRADE OF EVERY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL; AND THAT BELOW THE SEVENTH GRADE THIS TAKE THE SAME FORM FOR BOYS AND GIRLS;

(b) THAT IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES THE WORK BE DIFFERENTIATED, TAKING FOR THE PRESENT THE FORM OF WOOD WORK FOR BOYS AND DOMESTIC ECONOMY FOR GIRLS;

(c) THAT FACILITIES FOR SUCH INSTRUCTION IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES BE PROVIDED AS RAPIDLY AS POSSIBLE, WITH DUE REFERENCE TO ECONOMY IN THE MATTER BOTH OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIAL.

The introduction of "constructive work"<sup>(18)</sup> into the elementary schools has come to be general in city systems. The educational results aimed at

(15) This is the rule in Washington, where these special studies are thoroughly taught by the regular teachers, a plan which effects a great saving in the cost of instruction.

(16) "We believe that drawing, music and physical culture are essential modes of expression and development; that each should be retained on the school programme and properly correlated with all other subjects and processes of education."—*The George Howland Club*.

(17) "In the first place, there is industrial and æsthetic drawing, which should have a place in all elementary school work. By it is secured the training of the hand and eye. Then, too, drawing helps in all the other branches that require illustration. Moreover, if used in the study in the great work of art in the way hereinbefore mentioned, it helps to cultivate the taste and prepare the future workman for a more useful and lucrative career, inasmuch as superior taste commands higher wages in the finishing of all goods."—*Committee of Fifteen, p. 51*.

(18) "A large number of educators still continue to regard every form of manual training as a mere concession to "bread and butter" education. But

in this form of instruction are the same for boys and for girls, and in the lower grades at least, there is no reason for differentiating the two. After the sixth year a division may naturally occur, with the assignment of wood work for boys and domestic economy, including housework, cooking and sewing for girls.<sup>(19)</sup> This division, however, is not absolute<sup>(20)</sup>, for much

while manual constructive work may contribute quite largely to utilitarianism, it has a far more important value for the physical and mental progress of the child. In its three phases of wood work, mechanical drawing, and clay modeling, it reacts most beneficially on the physical hygiene of the pupils. It furnishes exercise and recreation. The free play of muscles in sawing, the swinging of the arms in hammering and planing gives to every child a vigorous and bounding physique, and develops arms, limbs, chest and brain. But the physical benefits do not outweigh in the least the worth of manual and constructive work as a mental and moral tonic. Nothing can give the eye a better training in accurate judgment or in the sense of beauty and fitness. It trains the child to discriminate sharply, and to observe accurately, to judge rightly and to make comparisons with precision."—*Frederick Eby, in Education, April, 1898.*

"In my judgment, manual training should not be limited to the seventh and eighth grades, but should begin in the kindergarten with the simple study of form from objects and the reproduction in paper of the objects presented, and should extend in a series of carefully graded lessons through all the grades, leaving, however, the heavier tools, such as the plane, for the seventh and eighth grades. By these means, an interest is kept up in the various human industries, sympathy for all labor is created, and a certain degree of skill is developed; moreover, the interest of the pupils in their school is greatly enhanced. Manual training has often proved the magnet by which the boys at the restless age have been kept in school instead of leaving for some gainful occupation."—*Charles B. Gilbert, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N. J.*

"I favor the more general introduction of manual training into the schools. In my judgment, the chief justification for the establishment and maintenance of manual training in the schools lies in the admitted fact that it is a most potent factor in intellectual development. If this judgment be correct, then other considerations admitting the same, the scope of the manual training should be greatly extended, embracing both grammar and primary classes."—*A Chicago Superintendent.*

"I need not dwell upon the patent fact that the great majority of boys in public schools have left school by the time they are thirteen years old. From the best information that I can get, I infer that no more than one out of six of the St. Louis boys between the ages of fourteen and eighteen is at school anywhere. Manual training would keep many of these boys at school."—*A. F. Munson, in American School Board Journal, February, 1898.*

<sup>(19)</sup> "I am most heartily in favor of introducing manual training into every school, at the earliest possible time, and into every grade, adapting the work to the conditions and needs of the children—wood work for all boys, making it optional for the girls; cooking and sewing for the girls."—*A Chicago Principal.*

"Manual training gives the child a chance to know himself. The more numerous and various the ways the child tests himself during the period of his elementary education, the more likely he is to know in which field he can best serve his generation. The choice of an occupation, the definite means for a common service, too often rests upon chance. The average boy or girl looking for work,

of the work in these subjects, more particularly in their connection with other studies, should be opened to both sexes. The theoretic instruction in cooking, for example, in so far as it relates to the chemistry of food, should be given to both sexes, although only girls may follow up this instruction in its practical application.

SECTION 4.—THAT THE TEACHING OF THESE SUBJECTS BE CONDUCTED AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE BY THE REGULAR TEACHERS.

The teachers in the Chicago schools are not trained at present to give instruction in the special subjects of the course. Your commission believes that the board of education should offer opportunity in the normal school for adequate training in preparation for any position in the kindergartens and the elementary schools. If the additional manual training high schools which we have recommended are opened for both sexes, and if a proper two years' course is established for the normal school, the recommendation of this section can be easily carried into effect. The suggestion has been

takes what comes first and bids fair to offer a living, the tendency being among thinking people, where election is possible, to choose occupations not likely to interfere with white hands. The case of round pegs in square holes are innumerable."—*Charles B. Gilbert, in Education, December, 1898.*

"We suggest that a continuous manual training be introduced in all the grades of the public schools from the first to the eighth inclusive, and that cooking and sewing be included in such training."—*Every Day Club, Chicago.*

(20) "The association is convinced that the habits of accuracy, industry, consideration, energy and truthfulness, as well as the general usefulness and discipline, which result from this method of training, are needed fully as much by girls as by boys. The fact that women are called to deal with material for food and clothing which permit of inaccuracy and carelessness in their use makes all the more necessary an early training in handling materials, such as wood, which demand precision and exactness. The association believes that the educational methods of the schools of Chicago are fortunately tending to do away with the old time pedagogical error of separating knowing from doing. The dissatisfaction with the public school system which still exists to some extent, can be removed only by methods which bring the facts used as the basis for intellectual training into close correlation with the present and future activities of the child. Methods of teaching cooking, sewing and other household arts have been developed of recent years, so that these subjects have true educational value, and are now, in the opinion of the association, worthy of a place in the public school curriculum. The experience of some foreign countries and still more notably of some American cities, seem to justify the hope that the city of Chicago will soon take steps forward in this direction."—*The Chicago Association of Collegiate Alumnae.*

already made that the supervision of each of these special studies in the normal, high, and elementary schools, be under the charge of one responsible director.<sup>(21)</sup>

(21) See Article III, Section 3.

"To insure the success of any subject, one supervisor should have charge of it from the kindergarten through the twelfth grade. Music and drawing will more surely keep out of the realm of "fads" when they are unified along the lines indicated."—*Ella F. Young Club, Chicago.*



**Resident  
Commissioners**

**ARTICLE IX**

Your Commission respectfully recommends<sup>(1)</sup> :

SECTION 1.—THAT FOR THE PURPOSES OF SCHOOL INSPECTION, THE BOARD OF EDUCATION DIVIDE THE CITY INTO SPECIAL INSPECTION DISTRICTS, EACH TO INCLUDE NOT MORE THAN TEN SCHOOLS;

SECTION 2.—THAT THE MAYOR, AFTER THIS POWER IS GIVEN HIM, APPOINT FOR EACH INSPECTION DISTRICT FROM AMONG THE RESIDENTS OF THE DISTRICT, A COMMITTEE OF SIX RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS, THE MEMBERS OF THIS COMMITTEE TO SERVE WITHOUT COMPENSATION, EACH FOR A TERM OF THREE YEARS; TWO TO BE APPOINTED EACH YEAR;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS BE AUTHORIZED AND DIRECTED TO VISIT EACH SCHOOL OF THE GIVEN DISTRICT, TO OBSERVE IN DETAIL THE WORK OF EACH SCHOOL, THE DISCIPLINE, THE SANITARY AND OTHER ARRANGEMENTS OF THE BUILDING, AND TO MAKE REPORT AS A COMMITTEE DIRECT TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION;

SECTION 4.—THAT AN INSPECTOR, SIMILAR TO THOSE RECOMMENDED IN ARTICLE III, BE APPOINTED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AS OCCASION MAY REQUIRE, TO INVESTIGATE AND REPORT UPON THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEES OF RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS.

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There is a marked tendency in American cities to make the school system more and more a matter of expert control. This tendency, your commission in its recommendations has recognized as the logical outcome of experience, and we believe that no other principle is so general in its application to school affairs. The difference between the New England town, with a school trustee supervising each teacher in its employ, and the city of Cleveland with one superintendent, who has practically absolute

(1) "I commend this article to the favorable consideration of the board. Besides the direct advantages to be derived by committee visitation and reports upon the observed conditions of the schools, the plan will, if adopted, without question serve to popularize the schools, and to bring them in closer touch with the people."—*D. R. Cameron, Ex-President Chicago Board of Education.*

power in educational affairs, measures the extreme growth of this idea. It is not, however, to be accepted without safeguards from the people. When larger powers are placed in the hands of a superintendent, whose judgment is modified only by his assistants, and these in turn have been imbued in a great measure with his own ideas of instruction and management, there is distinct danger that the schools will fail to respond fairly to the ideas of the people. If the system of public instruction is not readily affected by public opinion, a feeling of dissatisfaction naturally arises that may lead to radical changes through the appointment of new members to the board of education, and such changes, it is safe to say, are in general prejudicial to the interest of public education.

The administration of school affairs is only part of the larger question of government, in which we find by no means so universal a recognition of the principle of expert control. To mention one illustration: The whole administrative system of the Prussian government was formerly based on this idea, which experience showed did not secure the desired result. As long as it was in vogue, the system of administration was over-conservative, rigid, and not adapted to the changing needs of the people. With the introduction of the lay element came rapid improvement of Prussian methods. Similar cases can be found in educational history. The English universities of Oxford and Cambridge, as long as they were governed entirely by their own corporate bodies, were unprogressive, and the administration was so full of abuses that it became necessary for a government commission to intervene. It is safe to say that any educational system controlled wholly by the teaching force will be too conservative. The larger questions of educational policy must be left to the whole community from which representatives should be chosen to consider questions of public instruction and make recommendations to the proper authorities. The need of such representatives has been widely recognized. The city of Berlin, for example, has to-day popular committees aggregating a very large membership to look after the educational interests of special districts. Similar committees are established in other continental cities. The appointment of school visitors to perform a similar function<sup>(2)</sup>, was proposed in Boston and the new charter of New York has authorized the selection of a number of citizens to act in this capacity for the different

(2) "Said school visitors shall serve without pay; shall visit the schools whenever they deem proper and study the proceedings therein, and shall, in the whole or by districts, meet from time to time as they deem proper, or on the call of the superintendent; and may from time to time make such reports and recommendations to the school committee as said citizens may deem proper."—*Proposed Boston School Law, 1898, Sections 2 and 4.*

sections of the city.<sup>(3)</sup> The importance of this lay element in the educational system has strongly impressed itself on your commission. It will stimulate popular interest, do away largely with the danger of public indifference toward the administration of the schools, and will supply an adequate substitute for general representation on a large board of education. We accordingly recommend:

SECTION I.—THAT FOR THE PURPOSES OF SCHOOL INSPECTION, THE BOARD OF EDUCATION DIVIDE THE CITY INTO SPECIAL INSPECTION DISTRICTS, EACH TO INCLUDE NOT MORE THAN TEN SCHOOLS;

The board of education, on the suggestion of the superintendent, should have the power to divide the city into districts suitable for this purpose. Each school district as at present organized will include probably about three of these inspection districts. Not more than ten schools at the most

(3) "Section 1,097. A school board in its discretion may divide the borough or boroughs under its charge into as many school inspection districts as it may deem necessary, which districts must be contiguous and as near as may be of equal population; and at once upon the making of such districts it shall file maps of the same duly authenticated by the chairman of the school board, in the office of the mayor of the city of New York. School inspection districts existing in any of the boroughs at the time this act takes effect shall continue as such until changed by the provisions of this section; and all inspectors of common schools who have been duly appointed to serve therein shall serve out the terms for which they were respectively appointed and their successors shall be appointed by the mayor as their terms respectively expire, for the like period of five years. If any school board, pursuant to the powers conferred upon it by this chapter shall have divided or re-divided its territory into school districts, then the mayor shall, within sixty days thereafter, appoint in and for each of the school inspection districts of the boroughs so divided, five inspectors of common schools, to hold office respectively as may be designated in their letters of appointment, for one, two, three, four and five years from the first day of October next following their appointments. Upon the expiration of their respective terms the mayor shall appoint their successors for the full term of five years. Subject to the conditions of contiguity and equality of population as hereinbefore prescribed, each school board shall have power every five years, if it shall have once divided its territory into inspection districts, again to divide it into such districts and to make changes in existing districts, or in their number; and if such number of districts be increased, the mayor shall forthwith appoint, in the same manner and with like effect as herein provided, as many additional inspectors of common schools as may be necessary to afford five inspectors in each district. Such additional inspectors shall be subject to the same bylaws and regulations as govern the other inspectors in the same borough, and shall perform the same duties. All inspectors of common schools shall serve without pay, and shall be residents of the district in and for which they are appointed. Any vacancy in the office of common schools caused by death, resignation or otherwise, shall be filled by the mayor for the unexpired term. The inspectors appointed for the respective districts in any borough shall organize in every year on the second Monday of October, by the election of two of their members as chairman and secretary, respectively; and they shall meet as often as may be necessary for the efficient performance of the duties imposed upon them."—*New York Charter*.

can be put with advantage under the charge of each committee, since these bodies should represent the local sentiment under particular conditions, and if more than ten schools were included, the conditions would vary too greatly within one district for the recommendations to prove directly and specifically useful.

SECTION 2.—THAT THE MAYOR, AFTER THIS POWER IS GIVEN HIM, APPOINT FOR EACH INSPECTION DISTRICT FROM AMONG THE RESIDENTS OF THE DISTRICT, A COMMITTEE OF SIX RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS, THE MEMBERS OF THIS COMMITTEE TO SERVE WITHOUT COMPENSATION, EACH FOR A TERM OF THREE YEARS; TWO TO BE APPOINTED EACH YEAR;

Theoretically it might seem best that these committees be selected by the residents of the particular district. This might make them more truly representative of local needs and opinions. There are, however, obvious difficulties in the way of such a plan, and your commission considers that the interests of the community will be well served, if the appointment of these committees rests with the mayor. The membership of the committees can be indicated with sufficient definiteness after a consideration of their duties. If the committees were large they might fail of concerted action in their recommendations, or include persons who have not time or inclination to fulfill the functions assigned to them. Moreover, the number should be limited so as to prevent the assignment of the supervision of any school to a particular member of the committee, since this might lead to a rivalry of individual members in securing concessions or favors for the schools assigned them. The term of office should be long enough to enable the committee to become intimately acquainted with the district.

SECTION 3.—THAT THE RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS BE AUTHORIZED AND DIRECTED TO VISIT EACH SCHOOL OF THE GIVEN DISTRICT, TO OBSERVE IN DETAIL THE WORK OF EACH SCHOOL, THE DISCIPLINE, THE SANITARY AND OTHER ARRANGEMENTS OF THE BUILDING, AND TO MAKE REPORTS AS A COMMITTEE DIRECT TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION;

The duties of these committees should be to examine the schools and to make recommendations. To avoid, as far as possible, trivial or personal recommendations, the suggestions in regard to the schools of each district should come to the board of education from the committee as a whole.<sup>(4)</sup>

(4) "Section 1,098. The duties of the inspectors of common schools are stated and fixed to be as follows: In their respective districts they shall visit and inspect at least once in every quarter, all the schools in the district, in respect

SECTION 4.—THAT AN INSPECTOR, SIMILAR TO THOSE RECOMMENDED IN ARTICLE III, BE APPOINTED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION AS OCCASION MAY REQUIRE, TO INVESTIGATE AND REPORT UPON THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEES OF RESIDENT COMMISSIONERS.<sup>(5)</sup>

Granted that the force of superintendents authorized by the board is adequate to carry out the policy of the superintendent of instruction, your commission believes that the recommendations of the school visitors should be reviewed when necessary by a separate official. In so far as these direct representatives of the people have no occasion to report minor failures in administrative details, the suggestions they make will be in the form of general criticisms on the educational policy of the city as applied to their particular districts, and these, we believe, should be submitted to an impartial expert.

to punctual and regular attendance of the pupils and teachers, the number and fidelity of the teachers, the studies, progress, order and discipline of the pupils; the cleanliness, safety, warmth, ventilation and comfort of school premises; and whether or not the provisions of the school laws in respect to the teaching of sectarian doctrines or the use of sectarian books have been violated, and shall call the attention of the board of education, or of the proper school board of the borough, as the case may be, without delay, to every matter requiring official action. Every board of inspectors shall, on or before the first day of January, April, July and October of each year, make a written report to the proper school board in respect to the condition of the schools, the efficiency of teachers, and wants of the district, especially in regard to schools and school premises."—*New York Charter*.

(5) "I think, also, that the suggestion that 'an inspector as may be needed. be appointed by the board of education to investigate and to report upon the recommendations of each committee of school visitors,' is an admirable one. It is evidently vitally important that the public schools shall be kept in touch with the public and that they should command both public interest and public confidence. The scheme of school visitors as ordinarily applied, is good as far as it goes. I think your suggestion of a special inspector, to follow up their reports, promises to give to the system just the element that it needs to make it a valuable factor in the work of the schools."—*Seth Low, President Columbia University*.

Your Commission respectfully recommends in regard to the text-books of the public schools:

THAT THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, UNDER THE PRESENT RULES, BE DIRECTED TO CONSIDER CAREFULLY THE TEXT-BOOKS IN USE IN THE CITY, WITH THE VIEW OF REDUCING THE NUMBER OF THE REQUIRED BOOKS, AND OF GIVING, AT THE SAME TIME, THE TEACHER MORE LIBERTY OF CHOICE WITHIN THE LIMITATIONS OF THE COURSE OF STUDY.

We have already expressed our belief that the choice of text-books for use in the public schools rests naturally with the superintendent. Experience in many cities has shown that just in proportion as the board of education undertakes this detail of school administration, difficulties arise which impair the efficiency of the system. No board of education is competent to choose the text-books best adapted for school use. The problem is distinctly one for expert decision, and should be left to the superintendent. His recommendation, made after due consultation with his assistants, should be followed in all cases. What is true of text-books is also true of other equipment, such as reference libraries, maps, and general school supplies. Such a rule as has been proposed<sup>(1)</sup>, would be welcomed, we believe, by the members of the board themselves, for it would free them from much annoying pressure on the part of representatives of various publishing interests. No one can follow the history of the Chicago board in the matter of text-books and school supplies without being impressed with the serious waste of time involved in the present method of selection. It has led, at the best, to much fruitless consideration of these questions by members of the board, and at the worst, to an effort to exert undue influence on their decision.<sup>(2)</sup> The change recommended should be favorably re-

(1) See Article III, Section 1 c.

(2) "As to text-books a great many members of my school committees have always voted conscientiously. Of books whose sale is not large—high school books, reference books, supplementary reading—the selections have usually been



garded also by publishing houses, as it would gradually diminish the effort necessary to present fairly the claims of their respective books, and would lead to a more just and impartial choice between them.

If these considerations hold true, we may reasonably conclude that under the plan hitherto followed, minor abuses have arisen. Your commission believes that in some instances, text-books and various kinds of school equipment have been adopted which are not needed, or were not carefully chosen, or for which, under a progressive course of study there is no longer any necessity.<sup>(3)</sup> If it is a difficult matter at present to secure the adoption of particular text-books, it is almost equally difficult to have them dropped from the list. To secure freedom for the superintendent in the choice of text-books, we believe that in school legislation this function should be assigned clearly and fully to him. A general disposition on the part of the members to follow his advice, and even a formal ruling of the board of education to this effect, is not a sufficient guarantee, since in either case the board will be free, under a suspension of the rules or otherwise, to act contrary to the superintendent's recommendations. Pending final

made on the recommendation of myself and the teachers who are to use the books. The case is entirely different with books whose sale is large and profitable, such as readers, arithmetics, geographies, grammars, copy-books, and spelling-books. The rival publishers' agents divide the committee into two or three hostile camps, and arouse an anxiety on the part of many of the school committee for the success of their side only less intense than the agents themselves feel.

"I have learned to keep out of book fights. I hasten to profess neutrality and to maintain a dignified reserve on the question, even to the extent of displeasing my friends who really desire my advice as to which is the best book. Doubtless this confession will read to some like the words of a coward. But why should a superintendent ruin his chances of success in things more vital to the schools than the use of this or that arithmetic?"

"I am on good terms with book agents. I find them always genial and well informed. It is a pleasure to chat with them, but it will not do to make them any promises.

"The larger book houses employ two kinds of agents: the skirmishers and the beaters-up of the bush, and the men who do the heavy work when the crisis comes. The latter usually keep away from me. If they meet me, they hasten to say that 'they respect my position, and will be careful not to involve me.'

"Much has been said about corruption in the relations between publishing houses and school boards. My observation has been that it all depends on the moral character of the board. Publishers will not resort to means lower than is absolutely necessary to obtain trade, and I have known some to refuse to have anything to do with book contests because of the dishonesty of the text-book committee. The agents of most of our publishing houses are college-bred men, high-minded, and are willing to put their business on as high a plane as school boards will permit them. In short, where school boards are pure, the text-book business is honorably conducted."—*Confessions of Three Superintendents in Atlantic Monthly, November, 1898.*

(3) "Since our best opportunities for permitting the child to express himself with brush, crayon, pencil and pen do not come when he is required to use a book, we would suggest that drawing books and writing books be discarded."—*Ella F. Young Club.*

legislative action, which will give this power to the superintendent, we believe that much can be accomplished if the board of education will support a vigorous educational policy in this particular. The superintendent should be entirely free in the choice of text-books, except that his action should be subject to revision by a two-thirds vote of the board. Either under this provision or under the present rule requiring the sanction of a majority of the board for the adoption of text-books he should be directed to revise the present list of text-books.

He will find, we believe, that more text-books are now required than are necessary for school purposes, a condition which imposes improper expense on the public. Furthermore, the rigid requirement of certain text-books for all grades unduly hampers the individual teacher, who has the definite problem of accomplishing certain educational results with a given number of pupils during a given period. In so far as the teacher lacks ability or is deficient in preparation for his work, close adherence to a good text-book may be necessary. Our Chicago teachers have, however, furnished no better proof of increasing efficiency than by manifesting their desire to be in a measure freed from such restrictions and to be allowed more liberty in working out in each case the specific problem of the particular grade and school. Your commission is not prepared to recommend an open text-book list, but we hold that, considering the great difference between schools in various sections of the city, and the different individuality of the teachers, much more latitude in this regard should be granted principals and teachers than is now the rule.

Your Commission respectfully recommends in regard to evening schools and free lectures:(<sup>1</sup>)

(1) THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION APPOINT A SPECIAL COMMITTEE TO CONSIDER THE PROBLEMS CONNECTED WITH EVENING SCHOOLS(<sup>2</sup>) AND OTHER SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES.

(2) THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION APPROPRIATE FOR THE COMING SCHOOL YEAR A SUM NOT TO EXCEED \$10,000, TO BE EXPENDED FOR FREE EVENING LECTURES, ACCORDING TO THE SYSTEM SO SUCCESSFULLY INTRODUCED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

(3) THAT AN ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT BE PLACED IN CHARGE OF THE FREE LECTURE SYSTEM, OF EVENING SCHOOLS, AND OF VACATION SCHOOLS.

We recognize that evening schools as they are at present organized in Chicago are fulfilling a valuable function, but we believe that much greater results can be accomplished in these schools if the board of education will endeavor to determine what the community requires beyond the opportunities now afforded in the day schools.

The evening school has come to be recognized as a legitimate, permanent and necessary part of our public school system. It has been adopted in one form or another in all American cities and in all foreign cities, where the

(<sup>1</sup>) See Appendix D.

(<sup>2</sup>) "With proper provisions for accommodations and supplies, competent teachers and good management, there is no doubt that evening schools will take rank with day schools, and can be made a credit to every community. In the face of the annual influx by immigration, further and more pertinent provisions by law are necessary to convert the great mass of foreign-born illiterate persons into intelligent and industrious citizens."—*Report Massachusetts State Board of Education, 1883.*

"Of evening high schools there appears but one sentiment; wherever properly maintained they have justified the most liberal expenditure. In New York, Boston, Cincinnati, Brooklyn, and other cities, the reports show an increased public interest, which, to a great degree, is the true criterion of the good or ill management of this class of work. The curriculum of the New York Evening High School, while co-extensive with that of the high schools of the state, has success-

community has recognized education to be a public function. A general agreement has not been reached among school authorities as to the exact scope of these schools, but a careful consideration of the purpose and needs of our public educational system, reveals certain principles that must underlie a satisfactory policy on this question.

Our American communities have undertaken to provide facilities for elementary and secondary education for the use of the entire community. By our compulsory school legislation we admit the right of the community to insist that these facilities shall be utilized by the parents in our society, at least to the extent of sending their children to school between the years of six and fourteen. It seems plain, therefore, that no organization of evening schools should be adopted which offers a premium to these parents to keep their children out of school during the day time, hoping to comply with the letter of the law by sending them to evening schools. Yet under present conditions, many parents need the small earnings of the children who have become twelve and thirteen years of age, to enable the family to exist at all, and in these exceptional cases, facilities should be offered in our night schools for such children to get the modicum of education which can be obtained between the years of six and fourteen. In such a community as Chicago, moreover, a large portion of the population has brought

fully maintained advanced courses in collegiate work."—*Thos. W. Bicknell, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1884, p. 67.*

"The object of public school education being to secure a fair degree of intelligence in all members of the community, the evening schools are designed to supplement the day schools—to clear up and rake after them—by giving the opportunity for children, who have been obliged to leave school before they have acquired knowledge to study profitably by themselves, to receive instruction sufficient to enable them to use the public library to advantage, read the magazines and other periodicals, with intelligence, to study the various works, not so numerous, by which science is made easy and brought within the intelligence of the ordinary reader, and thus to become self-taught."—*Albert P. Marble, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1887, p. 188.*

"This brings me to the consideration of the importance of establishing free evening schools in all our large towns and cities, as a means to check or modify adult illiteracy, and also the equal importance of establishing free industrial evening drawing schools in all our manufacturing cities for the benefit of their unskilled mechanics and citizens. It is possible some may argue that these people would never enter the schools, giving as a reason, that they would be ashamed to acknowledge their ignorance, and therefore, their establishment would prove a useless and expensive experiment. But from personal knowledge and experience, I am persuaded that such would not be the case. In the evening classes which are held in some of the schools in Boston may be found hundreds of men and women who, under a corps of efficient teachers, are instructed in those branches of education which bear more directly upon the business in which they are engaged during the day. Or, if the pupils require it, they can have an elementary general education. During the winter months some of these schools are opened five evenings each week, from half-past seven to half-past nine, the term lasting for a period of five months."—*George H. Bartlett, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1888, p. 608.*

its children into the city without this elementary education, which we have come to regard as the essential minimum. For these children, also, facilities for obtaining the elements of education should be offered. We may assume, so far that our system of night schools ought to supply the instruction needed by the above described classes of children.

Another aspect of the matter would seem equally clear; it is a duty of the community, which undertakes to offer free schooling beyond the elements to all the children in the community whose parents are so situated that they can afford to send their children to the day schools for one, two, three, or four years beyond the elementary grade, to provide these facilities also for those children who are not able to avail themselves of the day schools. In other words, the fact that a parent is not able to send his boy of fifteen or sixteen to the day schools ought not to deprive him of the advantage of secondary education, which at the cost of the whole community is offered to his more favored associates. Our system of night schools should afford secondary instruction as far as possible to all who desire it. This means that we must duplicate practically our entire free school system in a series of evening schools for the benefit of those children who are not able to attend the day schools. The evening high school, with a free course of study, is just as much a legitimate and necessary part of our scheme of education as the day high school. This principle is recognized in all other countries which have accepted education as a public function. Thus in Germany, in Austria, in Italy, in France, and of late in England, the so-called "supplementary" or "further progress" or "continuation" schools, illustrate this attempt to duplicate in the evening the facilities of the secondary day schools.

To accomplish in the evening schools the purpose thus outlined, the whole system as at present organized needs revision. The board of education has recently taken a wise step in its rule that no day teachers should be employed in the evening schools except under special circumstances. Your commission feels assured that if the board of education will undertake a thorough-going investigation, it will discover the need of other changes—in respect to the proportion of teachers to pupils, in regard to salaries, and more particularly in regard to the course of study. The problem is a difficult one, and we believe that it will not be satisfactorily solved until an additional assistant superintendent is employed for evening schools. As the conditions of the vacation schools are in many respects similar to those of the evening school, one man might, with economy, be put in charge of both, and also of the free lecture system recommended below.

The full function and purpose of the evening school has not yet been

described. It should not attempt merely to duplicate the facilities of the day schools, but it should to some degree bring to the adult population of the community who, for one reason or another may have been compelled to leave school at an early age, an opportunity to secure the kind of mental training and mental food that will do for them at their more advanced age what the facilities of our secondary schools have done for their more fortunate juniors. This calls for a different kind of instruction from a mere repetition of the day school studies. Probably the best education for a child of fourteen, fifteen, or sixteen, is training in the elements of algebra, geometry, Latin, French, German, etc. It is, however, bad pedagogy to advise the young man of twenty-five who desires to make up for his lack of general education, due to a deficient elementary and secondary education in his youth, to go back and perform the work that would have been of the most advantage to him at the age of fourteen or fifteen. He needs a new kind of training a new kind of education, which may be obtained from lectures upon the various branches of literature, art, science, given by men expert in knowledge and expert in power of expression and presentation. In other words, a comprehensive and well rounded system of educational public lecture courses, offered free of charge in the public school buildings of our great cities, is one of the desirable, indeed one of the necessary means of adult education, which it is for the higher interest of the community to furnish, if necessary at public expense.<sup>(3)</sup>

The need of this educational force has been felt in many communities, and an attempt has been made in a few to satisfy it. Your commission

\* (3) "We complain sometimes in this country that the foreigners who come to us are not acquainted with our institutions; that they do not understand the spirit and practice of our government; that they remain to a certain extent alien to the life and spirit of our nation. What have we as a nation done to assist these foreigners in obtaining the necessary information? What have we as a nation done toward interesting them in the higher side of our civilization, and to put into their hands the necessary key to an understanding for our ideas, of our ideals? We complain that the average man and woman in our midst is careless about higher things; does not respond quickly to the best and highest appeal. What have we as a nation done to help the average man after he has passed from the period of infancy into that of youth, to say nothing of after he has passed from youth to manhood, to bring these new *stimuli*, these new ideals into his life?

"A system of post-school adult education involved in a comprehensive, well-rounded plan of public lectures upon science, art, literature, travel, offers one of the efficient means to these highly desirable ends. Here, again, we have in our public school plant the means of carrying out these purposes in a simple and inexpensive manner. Our public school buildings are notoriously, from an economic point of view, an underworked and underutilized investment of capital. They are used for seven hours a day for ten months in the year. They should



would respectfully call the attention of the board of education to what has been accomplished in this way in New York city.<sup>(4)</sup> We believe that the experience not only of New York, but also of a large number of European cities, indicates that much good could be accomplished in our city by a similar plan. The results secured during the past winter in the free lectures offered by a newspaper of this city, as well as those furnished by the University of Chicago, in co-operation with the board of education, strengthen this view.<sup>(5)</sup> We heartily recommend, therefore, that the board of education make an appropriation of the sum indicated for experimental work in this line during the coming school year.

become the centers of the educational life of the community, infant and adult, in a sense far different from that which has been true up to the present time.”—*Edmond J. James, University of Chicago.*

(4) The most successful and brilliant attempt of this kind up to the present is to be found in the city of New York. Within the last ten years the school board of the city has developed a free lecture system in connection with the public schools which is one of the marvels of modern education. The first series of these lectures was delivered in 1889, with a total attendance of 22,149 persons, and with a total number of lectures of 186. The system has grown by unequal strides until during the last year, 1,866 lectures and a total attendance of nearly 700,000 people was the result. The increase in the number of lectures during the last eight years has been about tenfold. The total number of lectures delivered is 5,154; the total attendance 2,290,495. This is a marvelous history, which shows the eager thirst of the people for entertainment and instruction of a high class if it can only be brought within their reach.”

(5) The *Chicago Record*, during the winter of 1897-8, arranged seventy free lectures, of which thirty-eight were illustrated. These were delivered to a total attendance of 35,000 people, giving an average attendance of 500 at each lecture.

The University of Chicago made also a modest attempt during the last year, in co-operation with the board of education of this city, to test the condition of things here as related to this kind of work. The school board furnished the use of the school buildings with light, heat and janitor service. The University furnished the lectures and paid the incidental expenses. Eighty-five lectures were given under this system in the various school buildings, with an aggregate attendance of over 27,000 people. These were lectures on history, sociology, natural science, anthropology, etc., etc. They were everywhere greeted with enthusiasm, and in many places the audiences far outran the capacity of the halls. All this points to the time when every public school building will be equipped with a comfortable, commodious auditorium, properly supplied with the requisite means of illustration to enable a lecturer to give the very best and most adequate representation of the facts of his subject. The city of New York has set aside the sum of sixty thousand dollars for this free lecture work during the year 1898-9, and it may be doubted whether any other sixty thousand dollars spent by the school board of the city of New York will do the board of education more good than this.

## Vacation Schools and Playgrounds

## ARTICLE XII

Your Commission respectfully recommends :

(1) THAT AFTER PROPER LEGISLATION HAS BEEN SECURED, VACATION SCHOOLS<sup>(1)</sup> BE ESTABLISHED AND CONDUCTED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION IN THE MORE CROWDED PORTIONS OF THE CITY ;

(2) THAT THE CURRICULUM OF THESE SCHOOLS CONTINUE IN GENERAL THAT OF THE REGULAR SCHOOL YEAR FOR THE BENEFIT OF CHILDREN WHO ARE DELINQUENT OR UNABLE TO GO OUT OF THE CITY, AND THAT IT EMPHASIZE CONSTRUCTIVE WORK, NATURE STUDY, AND THE STUDY OF INDUSTRIES, IN CONNECTION WITH WHICH EDUCATIONAL EXCURSIONS MAY BE ARRANGED ;

(3) THAT THE SCHOOL-YARDS BE OPENED WHERE NECESSARY AS PLAY-GROUNDS FROM 8 O'CLOCK A. M. UNTIL SUNSET THROUGHOUT THE YEAR, UNDER REGULATIONS AUTHORIZED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The proper employment of the summer vacation by the great mass of children of school age is a serious question. For children of the well-to-do, who can pass these months in the country, or in the better parts of the city, with ready access to the public parks, the problem is comparatively easy. With intelligent guidance on the part of parents, the time from the close of school to the reopening in the Fall may be made a period of wholesome relaxation and healthful activity. The parents of the great majority of school children, however, have little time to give to their supervision, and for the latter in the more crowded sections of the city, there are lamentably meager opportunities for exercise and little or no incentive to a profitable employment of the vacation time. Thousands of Chicago children have no play-ground but the public street<sup>(2)</sup>, and for them every summer means a period of distinct deterioration, mental, moral, and physical.<sup>(3)</sup>

(1) See Appendix.

(2) "In a district like mine, a vacation school would be regarded as a blessing. Not the least of its benefits would be the keeping of boys and girls off the streets. The only play-ground is the street, and a long vacation is most demoralizing."—*A Chicago Principal*.

Under these conditions, it seems to your commission a pitiful waste that the large equipment of the public school system should lie idle, when, through comparatively slight expenditure it might be used advantageously to further the best interests of the community. The need of vacation schools in large cities is strongly felt<sup>(4)</sup>, and where introduced they have been uniformly successful. They have relieved thousands of parents of grave anxiety, and have given their children an opportunity for pleasant and beneficial occupation. If the vacation schools did nothing more than give the children something to do not distinctly detrimental to their welfare, the establishment of these schools would be fully justified. Investigation has shown that in some of our more densely populated wards there is an increase of not less than 60 per cent in juvenile crime during the summer. Where vacation schools have been opened there has been immediate and marked reduction in this kind of offenses, and where formerly arrests of youthful offenders were very common, few or none have been

(3) "It is an obvious fact that a large majority of our school children who enjoy the benefits of attendance upon school privileges for ten months in the year are practically without wholesome direction during the remaining two months and left to roam at will wherever their irresponsible inclinations may lead them; and it is probably not too much to affirm that the demoralization, the formation of questionable habits and in many cases the beginning of things criminal do so take possession of them during the months of the summer vacation, that to counteract these unwholesome tendencies and the strong bias of evil, several of the succeeding months are hardly sufficient. Besides, there often springs up such an unhealthy moral tone, and a swing of the mind and heart toward immorality that the pupil does not return to school at all, and he is sooner or later launched upon the great sea of criminal life. Recent experiments have without question shown to some extent the value of vacation schools and the popular desire for their establishment and maintenance. Witness the success of the experiment in New York city and at the Medill School of this city, under private enterprise, to which 1,000 children were recently denied admission. This is a fact worthy of note and might serve as a suggestive object lesson to the board of education to be learned in the immediate future, and a problem which it may be called upon to solve in the interests of the people at no remote period."—D. R. Cameron, *President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1896.*

(4) "The general opinion among the poorer classes in Chicago is that the schools ought to keep open all during the summer, or give only one or two weeks vacation. They are only too anxious to avail themselves of the opportunity the schools offer, and one of their chief objections to the present system is that their children are on the streets for about three months every year. This is one of the reasons why a great many children of foreign parents are sent to private and parochial schools although the parents out of their scanty earnings have to pay for their tuition here. Attendance during these summer months ought to be optional, so as to give indigent pupils a chance to 'come up to grade;' for they are, as a rule, behind the children of more well-to-do parents, on account of less regular attendance, inferior home training and nutrition. If this be tried the school authorities will find out that more than 60 per cent of the pupils will stay out the full term."—A. Morton, *Superintendent, John Worthy Manual Training School, Chicago.*

reported.<sup>(5)</sup> Such testimony is a powerful argument for vacation schools, but it is not the only one.

On the positive side, experience shows that great opportunities are afforded here for educational work. To the thoughtful observer the enormous waste incident to the present method of conducting our school system is evidenced. The city has an investment of many millions in school property, which is used for a few hours each day during hardly more than one-half the year. Many experts have considered seriously whether it is not advisable to hold during the summer months school sessions with a full corps of teachers. There is no question that if this plan were adopted the attendance would include a very large proportion of Chicago children of school age. Not only would many backward children gladly seize this opportunity to attain the grade that can naturally be expected of pupils of their age, but many of the more studious and better endowed would be enabled to advance more rapidly and secure a better education before economic necessities force them to become wage-earners.

As long, however, as the vacation schools are advocated for the benefit of the children less advantageously situated than their fellows, no direct effort perhaps can be looked for toward making the vacation course of study a duplicate of the regular work of the public schools. Your commission, indeed, does not regard with favor the long vacation universal in our American school system. We believe that the summer schools with a full course of study, which are now proposed for New York city, could be introduced with even greater advantage in Chicago, where the climate during these months permits more earnest and sustained activity. For the present, however, it seems best to plan the course of study from another point of view, and to give here larger opportunities in lines necessarily more or less neglected during the school year. Nature study, with excursions; constructive work, both for boys and girls; singing, drawing, and physical exercises, are among the studies that have been most generally introduced and that have proved successful.<sup>(6)</sup>

(5) "Most of our schools should continue open during the entire year. Children who cannot leave the city during the summer vacation suffer from lack of proper employment. In working off their energy which is normal, they are often innocently led into acts which are unlawful, and are inured to deeds that finally develop criminal lives. I am satisfied that a want of proper employment and proper recreation has been the largest factor in all ages in making criminals."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(6) "It is a matter which should receive very careful consideration by the best minds whom you can secure—how to conduct vacation schools, and what should be included in the curriculum of these schools. They must differ very largely from the ordinary day schools. There is no question but that the children of

Vacation schools have been opened in this city through private gifts, and for these the board of education has wisely granted the use of school buildings. These schools, however, should be made an integral part of the public system and should be adequately and even liberally supported.<sup>(7)</sup> They are a benefit to the children, a help to the parents, and an aid, through the experience here gained, to the efficiency of the teaching force, and may modify in wholesome directions, the curriculum and methods of the elementary and grammar grades.

With the establishment of vacation schools should come also the opening of the school-yards as play-grounds in the respective districts. Some supervision will be necessary and some additional expense and labor are involved in the care of these, in order to avoid complaints that would otherwise naturally result from occasional misuse, but we believe that this action will go far to meet the needs of children for outdoor exercise during the summer months, and will command the general approval of the community.<sup>(8)</sup>

Chicago in the crowded portions of the city especially, and in fact, the children of nearly all our larger towns and cities, are receiving great harm from being on the streets from two to three months every year. I hope that Chicago will set the example to all the cities in the land in establishing a system of vacation schools, which would be efficient, which would be attractive to the children, and which may possibly give the children better instruction in some things, as in ethics, in the industries, in nature studies, than can possibly be given during the term time. The opening of the schoolyards as play-grounds from morning till night throughout the year is another great step."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Instruction, Iowa.*

(7) "I favor this proposition to the extent that summer or vacation schools, under the direction of the board of education, be established so liberally as to provide school accommodations for every one of school age who desires to avail himself of such provision. In fact, I favor continuous sessions of the schools, relieved by short vacations, say two weeks at the expiration of the first and each succeeding four months of the year."—*A Chicago Superintendent.*

"I am cordially in sympathy with the vacation school idea as about to be carried out by the women's clubs of the city during the coming summer, and hope that ere long the board of education will be able to carry out this plan as a fixed plan of the school system."—*A Chicago Principal.*

"We urge the establishment of vacation schools in the crowded portions of the city, under the supervision of the board of education."—*The George Howland Club.*

"Vacation schools for industrial work are endorsed. The equipment of school grounds in certain districts with apparatus for physical culture is recommended."—*Ella F. Young Club.*

(8) "The school-yards should be open every day of the year except Sunday from eight in the morning to six in the evening, for use as play-grounds."—*Every Day Club.*

## Ungraded Rooms and Schools

## ARTICLE XIII

In regard to ungraded rooms and schools, your Commission respectfully recommends:

SECTION 1.—THAT AN UNGRADED ROOM OR ROOMS BE ESTABLISHED UPON THE RECOMMENDATION OF THE PRINCIPAL IN CONNECTION WITH EACH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, FOR CHILDREN WHO FOR ANY REASON HAVE SHOWN THEMSELVES UNABLE TO MAINTAIN THEIR STANDING IN THE REGULAR CLASS-ROOM ;<sup>(1)</sup> AND

SECTION 2.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION BE REQUESTED TO CONSIDER WHETHER AN UNGRADED SCHOOL OR SCHOOLS SHOULD NOT BE ESTABLISHED FOR CHILDREN WHO ARE IRREGULAR IN ATTENDANCE, OR WHO ARE HABITUAL TRUANTS.

In a school system as carefully graded as is that of Chicago, much difficulty arises with those children who, for any reason, cannot easily be assigned to a particular room, or who, after assignment, fail to maintain the average standing of the class. These children may be of foreign birth or descent, and on account of their ignorance of the English language, need individual attention. They may be irregular in attendance, and therefore fall behind their comrades. In either case, particular provision should be made for them both for their own good, and in order that their presence may not interfere unduly with the work of the various grades. Since corporal punishment has been abolished, and expulsion from school is an injustice to the child and to the community, recourse must be taken to another means—a special room or school.

(1) "We request that the commission investigate ungraded rooms in other cities with a view of establishing the same in Chicago."—*Every Day Club*.

(2) "These children constitute a class of non-voluntary absentees from school. Their education, their moral training are neglected or ignored by their parents. They are not essentially bad. They might associate with other children without exerting any injurious or immoral influences. If sent to school, they would, under proper tuition and training, respond to processes of education and make satisfactory progress. Under previous or existing circumstances, they have



The teacher of the ungraded room should be eminently qualified both for instruction and discipline. The children put under such charge present a delicate problem. They include not only those who have fallen behind in the regular work on account of special mental disadvantages, or of irregular attendance, but also those who, through imperfect home training, are inclined to be unruly. Assignment to an ungraded room need not be for a long period. With the individual attention and stimulus here offered, it should not be a matter of many months before the pupil is fit both in mind and in disposition to resume the work of the regular grade. Care will be needed in assigning the pupils to these rooms, for in no case should it be made to appear a source of reproach to the child or his parents.<sup>(3)</sup>

In addition to the children for whom suitable provision can be made in the ungraded room, there is another class which demands even more careful attention. The child who is habitually irregular in attendance, or it may be, a confirmed truant, needs rigid supervision and direction.<sup>(4)</sup> He may

reached the kindergarten or primary school stage of intellectual advancement from six to eight years later in life than other children who have attended school regularly. If placed in graded classes they would feel their ignorance, they would feel under restraint in the presence of children so much younger than themselves, and this consciousness of self would interfere with their progress."—*Edgar A. Singer, on "Special and Parental Schools."*

(3) "The only caution in regard to the ungraded room should be that it should not be considered a punishment to be placed in it. Wherever the ungraded room has been tried heretofore it has degenerated into a kind of Botany Bay school, and children have left school rather than be forced to attend it. That point ought to be guarded against very carefully. The establishment of parental schools is an experiment. It is certain in my opinion that these parental schools will become a necessity and must be established, or else the state will have to establish and maintain more reform schools. The worst thing that can be done with a boy is to expel him from school. To turn him into the street and deprive him of his schooling is a sure road to the penitentiary before he is twenty-one years old."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Instruction, Iowa.*

(4) "These children do not like to go to school. The general atmosphere of the school-room is not suited to their mental organization. The bump of intellectuality in them is not normally developed, and they have no taste for books or study. They prefer the environments of home or the freedom of the street.

"Some of these are irregular because over-indulgent parents listen to and accept petty reasons for their remaining at home, or make insufficient reasons for sending them on errands, or to dancing classes, or to music teachers, or on visits to relatives or friends.

"Others are irregular because they do not respond to their teachers' efforts to arouse and to stimulate in them due interest in their studies and their class exercises. Of course, lack of interest in study leads to indifference and then to idleness, and trouble begins, for 'Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands (and brains) to do.' Then follow requests for interviews with parents for their interest and influence and co-operation. Temporary improvement results, to be followed in many cases by relapses into confirmed idle habits. Further conferences become necessary, but they are refused by some parents because they



not be morally deficient or vicious or entirely incorrigible, but, with little taste for study and a disposition to idleness, his irregularity in attendance requires serious treatment. For such a child, even the extra supervision and incentives of the ungraded room are not enough. Some degree of physical restraint is necessary. This may be afforded in the ungraded school, where his attendance can be secured by a truant officer, and where he can be retained during the entire school day.<sup>(5)</sup> He needs, moreover,

believe *their* children can do no wrong. The intervention of the school committee is then sought, that parents may be induced to see clearly their duty to their own children, but often without effect, and the issue is soon joined.

"The teacher cannot receive or retain pupils who will not behave, who will not respect the rules of the school, who will not try to take an interest in their studies. The parents do not appreciate the evils threatened by the attitude of their children toward school authority, they do not see the necessity of hearty co-operation with the teacher, that their own children may be reclaimed from idle habits, they do not accept the friendly offices of the school committee to establish the right relations between the school and the family. The immovable body and the irresistible force have come in collision, and the children are forced out of school. Other children reach the same end more directly, more rapidly. Some of these become irregular attendants or truants because they dislike the restraints of the school, they dislike merely intellectual branches of study, they dislike the ordinary school duties; others, because their idle habits and their misconduct merit and receive the condemnation of their teachers, and they wish to escape punishment at school or at home; still others, because they are suspended by the school authorities, and no efforts are made to have them returned to their classes upon condition of future good behavior. All these children are troublesome, they are mischievous, but they are not bad in the worst application of this term, they are not immoral."—*Edgar A. Singer, on "Special and Parental Schools."*

(5) "For such children, a school like the school in Detroit, known as the ungraded school, would be an important auxiliary to any school system. This is a school which the board of education of the city is empowered by law to establish, and into which truant officers are *required* to gather all habitual truants and absentees, as well as those pupils from other schools who are incorrigibly turbulent, vicious or immoral. Such pupils are not entirely removed from parental control, but they are obliged to carry their dinner and are under the care of their teachers during the time between sessions, as well as in school hours. Truant officers are empowered to compel attendance upon this school, and any absentee is immediately made known to them. The term for which a child is sent to the ungraded school is indefinite in length. By good behavior, punctuality and earnest work he may make it short, or by the opposite course he may make it long. No outside power is allowed to interfere and grant an undeserved release. Upon the child alone depends the length of his detention. In Detroit, one term in the ungraded school works reformation in three-quarters of the cases—a *grand success*.

"What shall these pupils be taught? Not intellectual, not scholastic branches only. Their habits have not been such as to interest them in study from the mere love of study. Of course, it is essential that they shall learn the common English branches; but their lack of mental development, their active out-door life, have created in them desires for something more than the spelling-book, the reading lesson, the multiplication table. They must have some exercise to work off surplus physical activity. There must be provided for them some form of elementary manual training—drawing, clay modeling, sloyd work, woodcarving, to alternate with exercises that are purely intellectual; there must be something for their hands to do as well as for their minds. Doubtless the expense of educat-

a different course of study planned with the purpose of arousing his interest in school work. Experience has shown that a large amount of manual training is helpful under these conditions. Less can be expected of these children in purely intellectual work. Much training of the hand will be beneficial mentally and morally. Enforced attendance at such a school with a specially planned curriculum, and teachers peculiarly fitted for this work<sup>(6)</sup>, will, your commission believes, go far to solve the truant question. The ungraded rooms and schools here recommended will not prove satisfactory in the case of the more incorrigible, and for them another school will be suggested in the following article.

ing children in these special schools will be more per capita than the average cost per pupil in the regularly organized schools, but the expense is assuredly less than will be the future cost to the community if these children are permitted to become ignorant, idle, criminal men and women. Besides, it is a condition and not a theory that confronts us.' Under the Compulsory Attendance Act, these children must be placed in school; but they cannot be forced into graded schools without injury to themselves as well as to these schools. Hence there must be instituted and organized for them special ungraded schools, adapted to their condition, to be placed under the care of teachers possessing peculiar qualifications for the peculiar duties required of them."—*Edgar A. Singer, on "Special and Parental Schools."*

"Many of the children who were thus drawn from the streets and placed in the schools have been found hard to control, and many times they have demoralized the rooms in which they were placed. This presents the necessity of providing for this class of children in separate schools, where special provision can be made for their teaching, for their bodily care and proper preparation for contact with others in the schoolroom."—*A. G. Lane, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1892.*

(6) "These children vary greatly in age, in size, in attainments. They cannot be taught in classes. They must be taught individually. As they have not been accustomed to or responsive to the discipline and the training of the graded schools, they must be placed in separate special schools under the charge of teachers peculiarly fitted for such positions; teachers who, having small classes, will study the disposition of each pupil and adapt their methods of disciplining and of teaching, so as to encourage each to better conduct, and to stimulate all to greater effort of mind and of will power necessary to insure advancement in their studies and the other school exercises; teachers who are familiar with the organization of graded schools and who will earnestly strive to prepare their special pupils for transfer to the regular schools as soon as they become qualified to take up the course of study provided for these graded class."—*Edgar A. Singer, on "Special and Parental Schools."*

The Compulsory  
Attendance Law and a  
Parental School

ARTICLE XIV

Your Commission respectfully recommends :

SECTION 1.—THAT STEPS BE TAKEN TOWARD SECURING A MORE ADEQUATE COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE LAW<sup>(1)</sup>, AND THAT THE QUESTION BE CONSIDERED OF EMPLOYING THE POLICE OF THE CITY FOR THE PURPOSE OF SECURING A MORE EFFECTUAL ENFORCEMENT OF THE SAME ;

SECTION 2.—THAT LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY BE SECURED FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF ONE OR MORE PARENTAL SCHOOLS FOR THE FORCIBLE DETENTION OF PERSISTENTLY REFRACTORY PUPILS.

The principle of compulsory school attendance is well established, and laws intended to secure and enforce this have been successively passed by many states. The earlier attempts were not uniformly successful<sup>(2)</sup>, but the necessity of greater stringency in legislative provisions has led in more than one state to laws that appear fairly adequate and satisfactory. The law of Illinois, approved June 11, 1897, seems in many particulars to be satisfactory, and the test of this law made during the past year shows that much better results have been accomplished for the city in the matter of compulsory attendance than was formerly possible.<sup>(3)</sup>

(1) See Appendix F.

(2) "So loose and defective, in fact, are many of these laws, especially the earlier ones, that there might have been some justification for the following sweeping verdict of the Colorado state superintendent, made in 1877: 'Compulsory education in America \* \* \* is a well-proven failure. \* \* \* If American experience has settled anything in the last ten years, it has established the fact that education cannot be made compulsory in the United States.' But, on the whole, I think that the development of educational interests during the last twenty years would go to prove the above radical statement wrong and quite out of date. Several of the states, as I have said, have been marching right along, passing more and more stringent compulsory laws and coming nearer and nearer to a proper and effective administration of the same; and there is very evidently a growing tendency in this direction in several other states. The tendency is undoubtedly more and more toward state intervention in this field."—*William Clarence Webster, in Educational Review, March, 1897.*

(3) The department has been very much strengthened by the new law, which

Yet definite action by the board of education in several matters would improve conditions. The majority of truant officers should be men, and the efficient work of the superintendent of this department should be supplemented by the appointment of one chief assistant. The responsible head should have also the privilege of recommending to the superintendent of schools the officers needed in his department.

Your commission believes, furthermore, that the state law may be improved by authorizing the employment in addition of police officers to aid in securing its enforcement. A more important step, however, in the direction of proper school attendance is the establishment of one or more parental schools under the direction of the board of education.<sup>(4)</sup> Such

has enabled the truant officers to enforce the regulations and accomplish good results, as shown by the following comparative table:

	Investi- gations.	Returned to School.
1894-5.....	11,878	3,752
1895-6.....	13,191	4,690
1896-7.....	13,990	5,626
1897-8.....	16,596	7,428

(4) "The third class above specified includes those who have been in school, but whose conduct—or misconduct, rather—has been such as to render their continued presence in school a constant menace to the teacher's authority and a harmful influence over the discipline and the general *morale* of the class. In civilized society laws are intended not to punish, but to protect those who are disposed to do right; they are enacted to restrain or to punish those who are evil minded, those who set the supremacy of law at defiance for their own gratification, for the accomplishment of their own selfish, vicious purposes. For this criminal class the law is intended to be both corrective and punitive. Crime against society has its only remedy in the separation or removal of criminals from their fellow citizens as a preventive against further crime. The effects of this separation are reformatory, or they, by creating fear of further punishment, compel obedience to, if they do not lead to respect for, the laws necessary for the government of all social organizations. In like manner school laws are enacted, not to menace those who are disposed to follow right lines of moral action, but to punish those who disregard or violate them. Schools are established, not for good children only, but for all children; for the good that they may become better; for the bad that they may be prevented from becoming worse, or that they may be induced to respect and obey school authority and social law in general. The state would fall far short of its duty if it did not make provision for taking charge of vicious children in time to prevent them from developing into the criminal classes of adult society. The Compulsory Attendance Act has for its purposes the reformation of these vicious children. They cannot be received or continued in the regularly organized schools; they were admitted into these schools; they were encouraged to do right; they were reproved; they were punished for misconduct; they have been suspended from further attendance in their classes; their parents cannot or will not control them; teachers and committees fail to correct their evil tendencies and their vicious conduct. What shall be done with them? The Compulsory Attendance Act commands that they shall be placed in schools; if not in the regular schools, then in other schools to be provided for them. It therefore appears to be the plain duty of the board of public education and of the city councils to establish parental schools for these children, to which they must be committed by legal process and in which they must be retained by force if necessary.



schools are no longer an experiment.<sup>(5)</sup> They have been found useful in many cities, and those most qualified to judge are heartily in favor of them.<sup>(6)</sup> The public demand for them in this city has been indicated in

The general purposes of these parental schools are to prevent the evil effects of the bad influences of vicious children over other school children; to afford them an opportunity to acquire an education; to produce such reformation in their moral nature and mental habits as will permit their transfer to special schools or to regularly organized schools. The course of instruction in these parental schools must include the common English branches, that the inmates may become qualified for admission, finally, into graded classes. To those branches of study should be added such features of elementary manual training as will serve to interest the pupils and stimulate them to more earnest, active physical and mental effort."—*Edgar A. Singer, on "Special and Parental Schools."*

(5) The truancy problem has in a measure been solved by the city of Brooklyn. Some time ago the city purchased a fine piece of ground several miles from the city and erected a building upon it to be used as a school of detention for truants. The ground and building cost the city \$75,000, and it requires \$25,000 a year to maintain the establishment. The truant officers hunt up all children who will not go to school. All are given a fair chance to receive instruction, but if they refuse to do so then they must be sent by their principal to the school for truants. The latter is conducted on much the same principle as a reformatory. The truants are confined and allowed very few privileges, being compelled to study much harder than they would be in the regular institution. After their sentences expire they are sent back to the city and given another opportunity to reform. One dose of the truant farm generally suffices for the truant pupil, but in case that it does not he is sentenced for a longer time, probably for the remainder of the school term. It is impossible to keep the truants there after the completion of the regular term, as they are not criminals, and must be given their liberty when the time arrives. At different periods since the institution has been established there have been as high as one hundred truants in confinement, although the number averages twenty-five. They are fed and clothed, and there is the regular corps of instructors the same as in the city, so that the bad ones receive every advantage.

(6) "But when such a school as this Detroit school shall have done all it can do, there will remain children in quite considerable numbers whom it will be impossible to save while the home and street life exert their baleful influence for so considerable a part of the day. For such children the *parental school* is a necessity. They must be taken out of the mire and filth of their associations and surrounded and placed in charge of such foster-parents as shall give them what they have never before known—a real home. A parental home is not a prison, but a school-home, a school in which a child is taught what he most needs to know, especially along the lines of manual training; a home in which he shall learn what the word 'home' means, and a home in which he shall be placed under those healthful, elevating influences of which a real home is the center and inspiration. Membership in such a school-home should be continual until, if possible, a relish shall have been acquired for the new ways, which shall restrain from a return to the old haunts and habits. Such a work will be often discouraging to those who engage in it. It will be too much to expect that hereditary and early surroundings will in every case be overcome, but the child will at least have had a chance, and many will be encouraged and helped to a worthy and successful struggle against the odds of the lives to which they seem born. It will be expensive—expensive as it is efficient. In all our large cities there are children in very considerable numbers who ought to be gathered into such school homes. Some cities have already started in this direction. Delays are dangerous. Children who may be rescued to-day, to-morrow will be beyond our reach. When we shrink from the expense of



resolutions of various bodies<sup>(7)</sup>, and more particularly in the recent report of the Chicago supervisor of compulsory education.<sup>(8)</sup> We recommend that steps be taken immediately to obtain legislative authority for the estab-

such reformatory work we should bear in mind the fact that such children, if let alone, will almost inevitably grow up to be a public charge, either in our penal or our charitable institutions. Which will involve the greater cost, this or that?"—*Charles W. Hill, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1892, p. 657.*

"Boys who will not go to school when they ought, and boys who are so ill-behaved when they do go that teachers have good reason to wish they had stayed away—these are the truants and incorrigibles who must be taken care of, if education in this country is to become universal in fact as well as in purpose, and so do its full work in training to good citizenship and in preventing crime. Little matters it whether the boy is out of school through his own waywardness, through his parents' neglect or the willingness of teachers to be rid of a troublesome pupil; in any case he stands for a failure in education and is a source of danger to the commonwealth."—*Edwin P. Seaver, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1894, p. 536.*

"There are many charitable organizations constantly seeking to remove homeless and neglected children from our city and to place them where the social surroundings and the moral influences will mould them for upright citizens. There are also a large number of children who are constantly dropping out of our schools because of insubordination to discipline and want of co-operation between the parents and the teachers, and they are becoming vagrants upon the streets and a menace to good society. The welfare of the city demands that such children shall be put under restraint and educated in a place where all the surroundings will be wholesome and reformatory. I therefore call attention again to the necessity for the establishment of a parental school for the benefit of such children."—*A. G. Lane, Superintendent's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1894.*

(7) "We ask that the compulsory education be thoroughly tested, and parental schools established."—*Every Day Club.*

"We urge the establishment of special schools under the board of education for truants and incorrigible children."—*The George Howland Club.*

"The parental school is absolutely essential, as it provides for children who are refractory or who have a tendency to be truants, and whose presence in the public school is a positive injury."—*S. T. Dutton, Superintendent Public Schools, Brookline, Mass.*

(8) "The parental school would be to the erring children a home where pleasant environment and good treatment would go much farther to reform the wayward than the strict and severe discipline of a prison or reformatory for criminals. Treat them with the care and kindness of a parent, teach them love of humankind, patriotism, and give them a universal training in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history and manual training. The result from such training will soon be manifest in useful and intelligent individuals. By all means the board of education should have power to establish and maintain one or more of such schools, and thereby break up or avoid the formation of bad habits and character, and thus save many children from becoming criminals. All good citizens desire to have these children educated, and we certainly should not permit a reckless and indifferent part of our population to rear their children in ignorance to become a criminal and lawless class within our community. We should rightfully have the power to arrest all these little beggars, loafers

lishment and maintenance of one or more parental schools<sup>(9)</sup> in Chicago similar to those which have been so successful elsewhere.<sup>(10)</sup>

and vagabonds that infest our city, take them from the streets and place them in schools where they are compelled to receive education and learn moral principles. This is the problem of the day, and measures cannot be taken any too soon looking toward the betterment of conditions which will make the control of this class easier of solution."—*Theodore J. Bluthardt*.

(9) "We still need, however, another school. These children may be divided into two classes—those who are truants from school and not given to any other vice, and those who are truants from school and home and given to many other vices. For the second class we should have a second institution, called a school of detention or a parental school, in which they might be kept day and night away from any evil influences and under the most favorable conditions for reformation. In connection with such school, I would suggest an industrial department, in order that these children might be kept constantly employed and be trained to work. By thus separating this class of children their evil influences on others might be prevented, and at the same time many of them might be redeemed from vice and crime and become useful citizens.

"Primarily, the truancy problem is an educational problem for school authorities to deal with, not a matter of municipal regulation for police magistrates to manage. Not until truancy, neglected and unchecked, has led to positive crime ought the truant to be handed over to criminal jurisdiction. Not until education has exhausted all means of prevention and reformation should the truants be surrendered to the police magistrates for punishment.

"To these schools are sent children who, after repeated warnings, have failed to make a satisfactory number of attendances at the ordinary day schools, in the hope that the strict corrective discipline which they are subjected to in them will make them less inclined to play truant when they are allowed to return to their homes. The terms of detention vary from a few weeks on the first commitment to a few months, if the first or subsequent commitments have not had the desired effect. The average length of detention is ninety-five days."—*Edwin P. Seaver, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1894 p. 543*.

(10) For a fuller treatment of the parental school, see Appendix G.

The John Worthy Manual Training School at the Chicago Bridewell is in no sense a true parental school, and should not be confused in the public mind with such a school as is here proposed.

Teachers' Institutes and  
a Teachers' Library

ARTICLE XV

Your Commission respectfully recommends :

SECTION 1.—THAT TEACHERS' INSTITUTES, SIMILAR TO THOSE HERETOFORE HELD IN CHICAGO, BE ENCOURAGED BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION ;  
AND

SECTION 2.—THAT A LIBRARY BE ESTABLISHED FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS WHICH WILL BE OF ASSISTANCE TO THEM IN EXTENDING THEIR PROFESSIONAL STUDIES.

The institutes for teachers which have been held in Chicago during previous years have been favored by those most familiar with the school system of Chicago, and have won the hearty approval and cordial support of the great majority of the teaching body. Your commission regrets that during the current year these teachers' institutes have not been held. They involve slight expense to the teaching force, and the sacrifice which the teachers willingly made of some portion of the summer vacation, was amply compensated for by the enthusiasm for their work and the guidance in their studies here gained.

Another means by which the teachers of Chicago may be able to continue the professional studies begun in the normal school, is the privilege of special library facilities that should be provided for them. The normal school, even in its best and most adequate form, can only start the teacher on the road toward higher professional education. It is for the interest of the city to encourage, as far as possible, the further development of the teacher. The institute is one important means; another, which the city should provide, is that of a good professional library. The community assists the courts and the lawyers in developing special legal libraries, because they are beneficial to the interest of society. It should also assist to a still greater extent the teachers in the formation of a special library which can bring to them the opportunities of a continually wider and deeper study and investigation of the vital problems committed to their charge. It is safe to say that no teacher in this city who desires to make a thorough investigation of that particular phase of public education in

which he may be engaged can find adequate library facilities for this work in Chicago. Indeed, it is a constant wonder to one who has examined this question in different cities, to see what little provision has been made to encourage the teacher to find out what other men have done or are doing, here or in other countries, in the solution of the same problems with which he is contending every day in his own school room. The proper kind of pedagogical library, placed in a central position and equipped in such a way as to be utilized easily, would perform a very great service in raising the efficiency and scholarship of the teachers of the city. Your commission, therefore, would respectfully invite the board of education to consider either the establishment of a separate teachers' library, or the question of co-operation with some public institution in an effort to accomplish this purpose.<sup>(1)</sup>

(1) A library such as is here proposed has been very successful in other cities. In Philadelphia Dr. McAllister, now president of the Drexel Institute, but for many years superintendent of schools in that city, established a teachers' library at the board of education which proved of more service than any other one instrumentality in arousing and stimulating a progressive spirit among the teachers. Superintendent Powell has secured a very efficient library in Washington at comparatively slight expense. In each of these cities the work has been done by the board of education alone. In Cleveland, at the suggestion of President Draper, at that time superintendent of schools, the board of education joined with the public library of that city, and in this way an excellent teachers' library was secured at slight cost to each.

## School Faculties and Councils

## ARTICLE XVI

Your Commission respectfully recommends:

THAT PROVISION BE MADE BY THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOL FACULTIES AND DISTRICT COUNCILS AND A GENERAL COUNCIL, WITH PROPER REPRESENTATION, TO BE CHOSEN WHOLLY OR IN PART BY THE TEACHERS THEMSELVES, AND THAT SUCH FACULTIES AND COUNCILS BE GIVEN THE RIGHT OF DIRECT RECOMMENDATION TO THE BOARD ON ALL MATTERS CONNECTED WITH THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE CITY.

When your commission was first appointed, a series of questions was submitted to the teachers of the city. One of these related to the organization in both the elementary and the high schools of teachers' faculties. These were suggested primarily to facilitate the discussion in each school of the questions of instruction and discipline especially affecting it. An organization of this kind, your commission believed, would recognize the principle of local autonomy<sup>(1)</sup> in school management, which is in accord with recent educational thought, and would offer the teachers an opportunity to make their experience profitable to the whole system. In order to secure the second purpose more fully, there is needed not only faculties in the various schools, but also district organizations and a central council.

This suggestion made by the commission met with a quick response on the part of the teachers, thus demonstrating the need of these faculties and councils. Your commission is not prepared to say that the form upon which the teachers settled is the best. This question is one for solution by them, although the board of education may fairly insist on the proper representation of various classes of teachers before recognition is given these bodies. Such recognition was proposed in the new legisla-

(1) "Subject to the approval of the borough board of superintendents and as the by-laws of such board may prescribe, the principal of each school shall direct the methods of teaching in all classes under his charge, except that the school board may adopt by-laws to govern in the case of special classes."—*Charter of the City of New York, Section 1,113.*

tion for Boston<sup>(2)</sup>, is felt desirable by the teachers of Chicago<sup>(3)</sup>, and is a move which is favored by some of our recognized leaders in education.<sup>(4)</sup>

(2) "Section 3. The school inspectors appointed as herein provided, and thirty teachers, or such larger number as the school committee may from time to time provide, elected from and by the teachers of the public schools of said city, not including temporary teachers, shall constitute the school faculty, and said school committee shall adopt rules for the election of the same, so that every grade of instruction and every school that does not fall within any such grade shall be represented; said school faculty shall serve without extra compensation, shall consider all educational subjects, including such as are disciplinary and sanitary, and shall make such recommendations and reports to the school committee as said faculty may deem proper."—*Massachusetts School Law, Act Proposed 1898*.

(3) "This is a step in the right direction. It would be productive of untold good to the schools if the teachers felt that they had a right to speak fearlessly and that their recommendations would receive serious and respectful consideration by the board. It would increase their self-respect. It is a shameful fact that most teachers are afraid to speak boldly about abuses connected with the schools in which they are employed."—*A Chicago Principal*.

(4) "For the participation of teachers in school organization there are many positive reasons. In the first place, the community needs their expert advice. They are the largest body of men and women in this country. They are in better position than their supervisors to discover at least the minor defects of school systems. They have a personal interest in making their time and thought go as far as possible. They have almost a mother's opportunity to study child life. They are a public-spirited and intelligent body of people, performing a great public service. Not to draw upon the results of their experience is to waste a part of the nation's resources. They have a profession, and the only profession to which women are admitted in large numbers. In the second place, the teachers need the stimulus of debate and of formulating opinions which go on record. In the work of the committee of fifteen both the report on the training of teachers and that of school organization laid great stress on the need of careful, professional and expensive preparation for the arduous calling. What would more attract people to make the effort than a recognized professional status? What makes Yale University the vigorous, pushing, forceful institution that it is? The governors? In part, but chiefly the faculty—that is, the teachers. In the third place, the superintendent will not be harmed by organized advice. No one fears a teachers' trade union demanding a four-hour day. The sub-committees report is justly incisive on the right of experts to manage expert matters. 'If the course of study for the public schools of a great city is to be determined by laymen,' they say (page 106, line 18), 'it will not be suited to the needs of a community.' If it be determined by only a part of the experts, will it suit the community any better? In the school machinery the teachers should be a part of the upper millstone and not of the nether. In the fourth place, the school boards need such direct relations with their teachers. How can the co-operation of superintendents and teachers be brought about? I will not say the 'correlation' of teachers and superintendents, because that is an explosive word. Something valuable would be gained if every superintendent made it a point never to enter upon important changes in his schools without previously consulting a large number of leading teachers and then following his best judgment. On the other hand, it would be a great advantage to education if we could introduce into America the successful French system of educational councils. In France every important administrative official, from the minister down, has about him a council, including some teachers, whose advice he is bound to take but not to follow. He assumes the responsibility, but never without informing himself."—*Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1895, p. 393*.



## The School Census

## ARTICLE XVII

Your Commission respectfully recommends :

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION BE REQUESTED TO CONSIDER THE APPARENTLY UNSATISFACTORY METHOD AND RESULTS OF THE SCHOOL CENSUS AS AT PRESENT ADMINISTERED ;

SECTION 2.—THAT WITH THE VIEW OF SECURING GREATER ACCURACY THE TAKING OF THE SCHOOL CENSUS BE ASSIGNED FOR THE PRESENT TO THE DEPARTMENT OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION ; AND

SECTION 3.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION CONSIDER FURTHER THE ADVISABILITY OF CO-OPERATING WITH OTHER CITY BODIES IN AN EFFORT TO SECURE A CENSUS WHICH SHALL BE OF SERVICE TO ALL DEPARTMENTS OF THE CITY GOVERNMENT, AND AT THE SAME TIME SATISFY THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE SCHOOL LAW CONCERNING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE SCHOOL FUND OF THE STATE.

In its investigations, your commission has been impressed at various times with the apparent inaccuracy and with the inadequacy of the school census as at present prepared. When we compare the census, for example, taken in 1894 with those of 1896 and 1898, we are confronted with what seem to be manifest errors. These have not only entailed additional and undue labor on the department of compulsory education, which has been obliged to review to a considerable extent the work of the census officers, but must affect the administration of other departments of the board of education.

An inaccurate census is in many respects worse than none. On the other hand, the value of a census properly taken can hardly be overestimated. The distinguishing characteristic of modern science can be put briefly in the words "accurate measurements." This is true not only of the natural sciences, but also of social policy. Progress can be made only on the basis of accurate and careful measurements of the facts of human society. This explains why the census, using the term in a large sense,

has become of such vital importance in our modern government. It is impossible to devise reasonable and satisfactory legislation on any subject in these days unless we have before us first of all the facts in regard to the subject, which may be presented in a mathematical or statistical form. In this city, for example, it is not possible for the board of education to know how many buildings are needed for the children who are required by law to be in attendance upon the schools, unless they know the exact number of such children, or to provide in any adequate way for the increase, unless they know the rate at which the school population is increasing.

The present method of taking the census is unsatisfactory, and your commission believes that better results can be secured if this work be assigned to some one officer of the board. As the conclusions to be drawn from the census of a particular year are of especial interest and service to the department of compulsory education, for the present the taking of the census should be assigned to the superintendent of that department, under the general supervision of the superintendent of schools.

It is the duty of the board of education under the present law to take the census of the school population, but that other parts of the city government need similar data for intelligent action, is shown by the fact that other departments than the board of education are also engaged in taking more or less accurate censuses. This would involve a useless duplication, even if the census taken by each of the departments were accurate and satisfactory for its purposes. No department, however, takes at present an adequate and accurate census. Economy and efficiency, therefore, would be secured if the city should provide for the taking of a general census in such a way that it may be available for all departments of the city government. In Boston and New York, a special census bureau has been organized, and the same rule holds in the better developed and better administered cities of continental Europe. Your commission is inclined to believe that, while for the present the school census may be well taken by the compulsory education department of the board of education, the city would do well to organize a permanent office for this purpose.

## School Accommodations

## ARTICLE XVIII

Your Commission respectfully recommends:

SECTION 1.—THAT STEPS BE TAKEN PROMPTLY TO INCREASE THE SCHOOL ACCOMMODATIONS OF THE CITY, AND TO MAKE THEM AS NEARLY ADEQUATE AS PRACTICABLE; AND THAT SUCH ACCOMMODATIONS BE CONSIDERED ADEQUATE ONLY WHEN THERE IS A SITTING IN A PROPERLY CONSTRUCTED AND SUITABLY SITUATED BUILDING FOR EVERY CHILD OF SCHOOL AGE IN THE CITY WHO IS NOT ACCOMMODATED IN PAROCHIAL, PRIVATE AND OTHER SCHOOLS OUTSIDE OF THE CITY SYSTEM; AND

SECTION 2.—THAT AS SOON AS THE FINANCES OF THE BOARD WARRANT THE EXPENSE, THE NUMBER OF PUPILS ASSIGNED EACH TEACHER ACTUALLY ENGAGED IN REGULAR INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BE REDUCED.(<sup>1</sup>)

The question of adequate school accommodations has stirred public interest deeply. Chicago in this respect compares favorably with New York, but falls behind many other of our larger cities. We regret that within a year there has been a considerable increase in the number of children for whom no proper provision is made. During the last year, 2,500 more children were housed in rented buildings than during the previous year(<sup>2</sup>), and nearly 5,000 more were taught in half-day sessions, than was the case in 1896-7. This has not been the fault of the board of education. It is rather due to the defective provisions of the school law applying to the city and the failure of the city council to do its part in the securing of new sites and buildings.(<sup>3</sup>) The present deficiency cannot be charged

(1) Reference has been made already to the overcrowding of classes in the Chicago schools. The point seems of such importance, that it is here emphasized again.

(2) In a growing city there will always be a necessity for a certain number of rented school buildings, since the line of growth cannot always be so exactly forecast as to justify the erection of buildings, especially in the newer portions.

(3) "Our enrollment for the year 1897-8 was 10,521 more than for 1896-7, and yet the figures above quoted show that we have not made satisfactory progress in the matter of providing additional accommodations. If we have

to a lack of money for building purposes, since in no year has the maximum levy been approached. The recommendations already made, giving absolute control of these matters to the board of education, if put in operation, will obviate the present difficulties. There is no question but that the city has fallen far short of its duty in the matter of school accommodations, and your commission strongly urges that immediate steps be taken to solve satisfactorily this vital problem.

There are thirty thousand children in Chicago, for whom full and fair provision is not made. Thirteen thousand are in rented buildings, which are in many particulars entirely unsuited for school purposes. More than seventeen thousand are in half-day sessions, every one of whom is thereby deprived to a considerable extent of the privileges which the city owes the children of the tax-payers. These are very startling statements, but they by no means represent the entire truth. While thousands are deprived in this way of the full opportunities which the public system of education should furnish, there are tens of thousands more who are suffering to an equal degree. It is an almost criminal condition of things which causes children to attend school in some of the buildings which the board of education has been obliged to rent. It is manifest injustice to offer others three hours of schooling, while their more fortunate comrades enjoy five. It is an act of equal injustice to assign fifty or sixty children to one teacher, when not more than thirty or forty can receive proper instruction in each room.<sup>(4)</sup> Experience is perfectly clear on this point. When the maximum is passed, not only does every additional child receive less than suitable attention, but every pupil in the particular class is necessarily slighted to the same degree.<sup>(5)</sup> It is a false economy that lessens the value of school instruction by at least fifty per cent., in secur-

a substantial balance to the credit of the building fund, it is due to the failure of the city council, which persists in its determination to retard the work of our construction department."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1898.*

(4) "To what extent the provision for school room is inadequate I am not able to report definitely, but it is certainly true the deficiency is very great, and the deficiency would be still more marked if the number of pupils assigned to a teacher should be reduced to a more reasonable figure. I believe that the assignment of forty-five pupils to a teacher secures a sufficiently large maximum. If the quality of instruction in our schools is the thing sought, this number should not be exceeded."—*A Chicago Superintendent.*

(5) "The custom of assigning a large number of children to a certain teacher ignores the existence of visual and auditory defects. The necessity for securing a recognition takes precedence of allowing for such defects or for fatigue. Heroic efforts fail to induce the child to turn his data over in his mind, or to

ing a saving of less than twenty per cent. in school expenses. The public has not yet appreciated the full importance of this question. The supposition that it is possible to instruct properly the same number of children that can be supervised and controlled in a given room, is erroneous. The teacher may preserve order and direct the work of fifty or even sixty children. It is absolutely impossible for even fairly satisfactory instruction to be furnished by one teacher to more than thirty or forty children. The opinion of those who have the greatest experience in teaching should be followed on this point.<sup>(6)</sup> When one remembers, moreover, that the length of the average recitation in the more crowded grades is not, and should not be, more than fifteen or twenty minutes, the danger of these large classes can be easily conceived.<sup>(7)</sup>

discriminate for himself when he is working against time. Intellectual development cannot result from such work. The teacher's effort to keep a part of her pupils merely quiet deprives them of opportunity for choice. Necessity for exercise of his will finds the child unprepared because of lack of will development. Unruly conduct and truancy are the natural outcome. Idleness and lack of concentration being in the first grade, where even the earnest efforts of the teacher cannot compensate for lack of time to show each child how to work. Instruction in the correct use of the English language is of great importance. The attempt to instruct large classes precludes the possibility of attention to the nice use of English in every subject. The considerations enumerated induce us to recommend that forty pupils should be the maximum number assigned to a division teacher, and that two teachers should be employed in every first grade room having a membership of more than thirty."—*Ella F. Young Club*.

(6) "In our judgment the provision for pupils is and always will be deficient, so long as there is not a school building suitably located, well ventilated, properly lighted and heated, and one room for each forty children of school age who desire and are entitled to attend the same."—*The George Howland Club*.

(7) The over-crowding of classes is the more to be regretted, because it occurs usually in the densely populated sections, where education is most needed and where, as a rule, children are unable to attend school beyond the first three or four years.

## Training for Citizenship

## ARTICLE XIX

Your Commission respectfully recommends:

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION GIVE IN ALL GRADES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL MORE DETAILED, SPECIFIC, AND SYSTEMATIC PREPARATION FOR GOOD CITIZENSHIP;

SECTION 2.—THAT THIS PREPARATION BE ADAPTED TO AWAKEN AN ENLIGHTENED SENTIMENT OF PATRIOTISM, TO GIVE INSTRUCTION IN THE HISTORY OF OTHER LEADING FORMS OF GOVERNMENT AND THEIR RELATIONS TO OUR OWN, TO COMMUNICATE A THOROUGH KNOWLEDGE OF OUR LOCAL, STATE, AND NATIONAL FORMS OF POPULAR GOVERNMENT AND TO EMPHASIZE THE DUTIES AS WELL AS THE RIGHTS OF AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP;

SECTION 3.—THAT HEREAFTER, EVERY CANDIDATE FOR POSITION AS TEACHER IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS BE REQUIRED TO SHOW PROOF OF ABILITY IN THIS KIND OF INSTRUCTION.

The importance and the possibilities of instruction in civics and of the general training for good citizenship are not now, we believe, sufficiently realized in the public schools. It is, indeed, gratifying to notice that there has been some recent revival of interest in this phase of popular education. The patriotic sentiments symbolized by the national flag have been impressed upon pupils, and some of the national holidays have been suitably celebrated in the schools. Some attempt has been made, also, although not with unvarying success<sup>(1)</sup>, to reflect in the schools a more

(1) "In a society with this as its constructive idea, it is essential for everybody to understand that personal merit is the only valid title to civic rank and social consideration. In this connection I assert that our schools have been delinquent, equivocal and sometimes cowardly in eliminating features of the older regime which emphasized the fact of inequality of performance and so far of merit. Wherever politics has laid its hand on the schools there has persistently appeared a tendency to truckle to mob demand for artificial leveling. Sometimes calculations of an entirely different sort have had the same



intelligent idea of the relation of the individual to society. Chicago has done, perhaps, as much as the average city to give pupils of the advanced grades an idea of government in general and of our American local and national systems in particular. But much more can undoubtedly be accomplished if the subject be thoroughly investigated and a plan devised for continuous and graded instruction, either separately or with other studies, from the kindergarten through the high schools.<sup>(2)</sup>

effect. Influential parents with good-for-nothing children have had to be placated. The evident evils of ranking systems have had to be avoided. For these and other reasons, some good and some bad, our schools of to-day are playing into the hands of that despicable demagoguery which holds back the realization of the only rational democracy by catering to the popular conceit of indiscriminate equality. No one thing is more needed in American life to-day than frank admission of inequality, with all that it implies. Our schools are shirking a prime responsibility when they fail to make real inequalities among the students apparent and impressive."—*Albion W. Small, University of Chicago.*

(2) "In this connection I urge upon the board of education the propriety of increasing the instruction in civics in our schools. We have finally arrived at the conviction—although we have been tardy in reaching it—that the child is an entity and not an incident, and that 'concrete instruction in civics must be increased in our schools.' When our children have ascertained their duties as related to the community, we will have less spasmodic patriotism and more stability will be given our institutions."—*E. G. Halle, President's Report, Chicago Board of Education, 1897.*

"Some knowledge of civil government should also be given in early oral or language work, which geography should have enlarged by familiarizing the pupil with the chief forms or national organization, and the historical reading, already referred to, have enriched with details of the growth of our own system, so that in the last year of the elementary course he would be well prepared to take up somewhat systematically the study of our own institutions. Experience seems to have demonstrated the feasibility of this, and no one will deny its desirability. The comparative table annexed shows how it has been introduced into some programs, and with its introduction after geography and history the elementary course in civics becomes fairly satisfactory."—*Report of Committee on Elementary Instruction, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1898, p. 204.*

"In this city (Chicago) we have an army of 225,000 school children; in the nation, 15,000,000. These are the wards of the state. By and by the children will have to grapple with all these problems of city government and of the foreign and domestic policy of the nation, and upon their training now depends their ability to handle them.

"Investigation and experience have demonstrated beyond question that a careful educational training is the best possible preparation for the exercise of the right of franchise, for the delegation of political power and is the best safeguard against all sorts of fanatical schemes and social vagaries.

"In the consideration of this subject it must be borne in mind that a large part of our children are of foreign extraction, and that about 94 per cent of them leave the public schools at thirteen or fourteen years—that is, they do not go beyond the primary and grammar grades. An astonishingly large proportion of them do not get above the fifth and sixth grades. How to make the most of these few years of school life for this training is the important question.

"I believe that the instruction should begin in the kindergarten under the direction of trained teachers; that certain ideas, such as respect for and obedience to parents, of honesty, industry, sobriety, habits of attention and observa-

Cultivation of mind and character is of course the best preparation for citizenship.<sup>(3)</sup> But we believe that, in addition, direct and specific education—theoretical, historical, practical, and even technical, should—be given to future citizens.<sup>(4)</sup> When the state pays the bills for free education, it has a peculiar right to the public benefits of that education. The character of citizenship in a republic determines the character of its government.

For some of the grades in the elementary schools suitable text-books in English upon civics are lacking.<sup>(5)</sup> France, since its war with Germany,

tion should be inculcated. This work should be followed up in the primary grades, where the habit of good citizenship should be further cultivated, and in the seventh and eighth grades the work should be broadened and a wider knowledge of the principles and functions of our government, of history, of law and justice implanted, and higher ideals of civic needs and patriotism instilled into the minds of the pupils.”—*William A. Giles*.

(3) “American citizenship means more than any other citizenship—not only because it lives and flourishes beneath the protection of the freest and best institutions in the world, but because it has the perpetuity and success of these institutions absolutely in its keeping and control. \* \* \* In order that the duty and responsibility we owe our government may be fully appreciated and faithfully discharged, it is vitally necessary for us to be convinced that we cannot delegate to others the work required of us. Each individual must with his own hands do his share. In this way our government was built and in this way only can it be kept in fit condition for the habitation of free Americans.

“How, then, shall the people protect themselves against the folly of a departure from their national purposes and against the crime of unnecessary and unjustifiable war? Manifestly, by an intelligent study on their part of the character of their government and the exaction of a clear apprehension on the part of those who would represent them in public life, of their nation’s mission and of the baleful effect of war upon their nation’s health. These considerations emphasize in the strongest possible manner the importance of a larger participation by thoughtful and educated men in political affairs.

“Nothing, however, will be found sufficient as a protection to the people against betrayal, if conscience and moral courage are lacking. Intelligence, study and knowledge are not protective agencies unless they are regulated and guided by a conscientious and serious desire to do right and by an unswerving adherence to patriotic conviction.”—*Grover Cleveland, June 21, 1898, at Lawrenceville, N. J.*

(4) “The only intelligent, systematic, effective method of teaching patriotism in our schools is to make the school itself, in its organization and government and spirit, an ideal democracy, where pupils learn to practice self-government, learn reciprocal rights and duties, learn loyalty to the community and to the national flag, truth, honesty and public spirit, for these qualities are the essentials of patriotism. \* \* \* Men who do not interest themselves in the affairs of their own community, from its board of health to its public schools, are enemies of the principle of self-government and of the whole system of political institutions founded upon it.”—*Chauncey P. Colegrove*.

(5) “While these ideas must be largely carried out by the teachers as a part of the school exercises and government, and in connection with the teaching of history, geography, etc., in my opinion provision should be made for special exercises supplemented by skillfully prepared readings and text-books and a syllabus or topical program for the aid and direction of teachers. We

appears to have far surpassed in this respect Great Britain and the United States. Some American experts who are endeavoring to supply this want, deserve encouragement. In the kindergarten and primary grades trained and patriotic teachers alone can meet our need.<sup>(6)</sup>

When pupils are old enough to appreciate practical training for citizenship, we believe that this form should supplement the historical and the theoretical training. As a single illustration, we may mention the need of education in the use of the modified Australian ballot. A great number of defective ballots have been thrown out in our recent elections. Why should not the older pupils in our schools occasionally go through the form of holding an election in accordance with the state law and with the usual machinery? We look with favor, also, on the attempts for self-government of pupils which have afforded training in creating, obeying and enforcing wise rules and regulations.<sup>(7)</sup> We believe that, while there may be some danger of over-emphasis in this matter<sup>(8)</sup>, these methods

have not as yet any well prepared set of text-books and reading books adapted to the primary and intermediate grades, nor a well organized system for this moral, civic and patriotic training."—*William A. Giles*.

(6) "It is now generally demanded that candidates for positions as grade teachers pass an examination in the fundamental facts of national science. I believe the time has now come for the demand to be as general that all such candidates should have received genuine training in the fundamental facts of our political and industrial systems."—*Henry W. Thurston*.

(7) Successful efforts in this direction have been made in the Hyde Park High, in the John Crerar and in other schools of Chicago. See Appendix H.

(8) "In a society like ours it is imperative that everybody shall know that respect for authority is a necessary element in the civic spirit. The conception of education as a process of leading individuality to self-expression has been a most serviceable abstraction, but when you make it a formula for an all-round program of education you turn it into a screaming burlesque. If you force the self-expression idea beyond a certain point you make it unsocial, non-co-operative, disintegrating, demoralizing, anarchistic. We have to express ourselves, but there is something immeasurably bigger than ourselves which we are bound to help express. That is the self-expression of humanity as represented by the society in which we live and move and have our being. There are ascertained limits to the latitude within which the self-expression of the individual is consistent with the self-expression of the whole of society. Those limits are prescribed in laws and other socially recognized signs which the individual is not at liberty to disregard. Adequate education for citizenship involves development of sense of respect for the authority represented by these prescriptions. There are some things which citizens are bound to do or forbear, not because their self says so, but because society says so. The school that fails to organize discovery and practice of this social element into its program is a serious social menace. \* \* \* School education simply turns grit into

and experiments in the hands of wise, earnest and patriotic teachers, may help largely to develop the instincts and habits of good citizenship. In this connection, the attention of the board is respectfully invited to the formation, in some of the Chicago schools, of clubs which attract the attention and interest of pupils to questions of municipal, state and national politics, and which convey much knowledge of the machinery of government.

The free use, elsewhere suggested, of school buildings in the evening as literary and social centers, might well be extended to include non-partisan civics. We would recommend, likewise, that wise and patriotic citizens,<sup>(9)</sup> perhaps, the "resident commissioners" named in this report, be invited to co-operate with the board of education in making our public schools an inspiration to good citizenship.

But the chief means by which pupils in our public schools may learn civics must be found in properly qualified teachers. We, therefore, suggest that a syllabus<sup>(10)</sup> be prepared and used for the guidance of the present

the bearings of social machinery instead of substituting more fit parts for those outworn, if it teaches boys and girls that constraint is no part of the law of life. I am not pleading for a regime of force and arbitrariness and tyranny in the schools. I am warning you that you are making social monstrosities out of the pupils if you let them get the notion that self is all there is to express. In the right preparation for citizenship there must be just balance between free self-assertion of the individual on the one hand, and on the other hand, loyal self-surrender to the larger self-assertion of the whole to which the individual belongs. It is, therefore, not a disadvantage, but an indispensable advantage, to retain in school some strong features of authoritative discipline which the pupils must observe with military promptness and precision. Straight-out obedience, not merely sugar-coated wilfulness, is a needful part of every child's education for citizenship."—*Albion W. Small, University of Chicago.*

(9) "I think it is desirable to perfect and organize, as far as possible, the various educational agencies for this kind of work under a special committee to be appointed by the mayor or board of education, in order to reach the great masses with systematic, well-advised instruction. This would embrace not only the training and instruction in day and evening schools, but special work in which parents and those who have not had the advantages of school training might participate. Outside co-operation might be utilized, as is done in other cities, especially in Germany. In Berlin many hundreds of more intelligent citizens are engaged in educational work outside of the school board, or as a branch of it. While I am not prepared to recommend the creation of an auxiliary board to participate in the management of school affairs, it seems to me it might be feasible to secure in this work the aid of a much larger class of citizens."—*William A. Giles.*

(10) "To make now a specific recommendation. I believe that a syllabus of carefully graded and progressive exercises for guiding the form of teaching in

force of teachers, and that the third recommendation in this article be strictly enforced.

civics in the grades might be and ought to be prepared as soon as possible and put into the hands of every grade teacher. Such a syllabus should from the first embody the experiences of many of the best grade teachers in their attempts to teach civics. As experience accumulates, it could undoubtedly be greatly improved. The syllabus, however, should be at least begun at once."—*Henry W. Thurston*.

Your Commission respectfully recommends :

SECTION 1.—THAT THE BOARD OF EDUCATION MAKE SUCH REGULATIONS FOR THE BUSINESS MANAGER AND THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AS WILL THROW OPEN TO THE WIDEST COMPETITION AMONG ARCHITECTS THE PLANS FOR ANY NEW SCHOOL BUILDING ;

SECTION 2.—THAT THERE BE NO FIXED RULES IN REGARD TO THE ARCHITECTURAL APPEARANCE OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS, EXCEPT THOSE WHICH ARE IMPLIED IN THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE SITE CHOSEN, THE USE OF THE BUILDINGS FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES, AND THE AMOUNT OF THE APPROPRIATION FIXED BY THE BOARD ;

SECTION 3.—THAT THE BUILDINGS BE OF FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION AND ADEQUATE EXITS BE PROVIDED FOR EACH BUILDING ;

SECTION 4.—THAT SCHOOL-YARDS BE PROVIDED FOR PLAY-GROUNDS WHEREVER POSSIBLE ; AND THAT, IN ADDITION TO THIS, SPACE BE PROVIDED FOR A SIMILAR PURPOSE WITHIN THE BUILDINGS THEMSELVES ;

SECTION 5.—THAT THE PRINCIPLES OF SANITARY SCIENCE BE FULLY RECOGNIZED IN SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN REGARD TO HEATING AND VENTILATION, AND ESPECIALLY THE PRINCIPLES OF SCHOOL SANITATION IN REFERENCE TO THE LIGHTING OF ROOMS AND PROVIDING OF PROPER WARDROBES, SUPPLY OF PURE DRINKING WATER, AND NECESSARY TOILET FACILITIES ;

SECTION 6.—THAT THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE COURSE OF STUDY BE CONSIDERED IN THE ERECTION OF BUILDINGS, SO THAT THE PROPER FACILITIES MAY BE GIVEN FOR INSTRUCTION IN ALL SUBJECTS IN THE CURRICULUM ; THIS IS TO APPLY ESPECIALLY TO INSTRUCTION IN MANUAL TRAINING, KINDERGARTEN, AND DOMESTIC SCIENCE ;

SECTION 7.—THAT SUITABLE ACCOMMODATIONS FOR WORK IN PHYSICAL CULTURE BE PROVIDED WHEREVER POSSIBLE, AND IF NECESSARY, IN THE ASSEMBLY HALL OR PLAY-ROOM ;

SECTION 8.—THAT THE CONSTRUCTION OF HIGH SCHOOL BUILDINGS BE ADAPTED TO THE EASY TRANSFER OF PUPILS FROM ONE ROOM TO ANOTHER ;



SECTION 9.—THAT THE EQUIPMENT AND GENERAL FURNISHING OF EACH ROOM USED FOR SPECIAL SCHOOL PURPOSES BE MADE MORE NEARLY ADEQUATE FOR SUCH PURPOSES, AND FURTHER EFFORTS BE MADE TO RENDER THE APPEARANCE OF ALL SCHOOL ROOMS ATTRACTIVE AND ARTISTIC;

SECTION 10.—THAT THESE RECOMMENDATIONS BE CARRIED OUT, SO THAT THE RESULTS DESIRED MAY BE SECURED WITH ALL POSSIBLE ECONOMY;

SECTION 11.—THAT A FIXED PRINCIPLE BE ADOPTED IN THE NAMING OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS ONLY AFTER DISTINGUISHED PERSONS, AND THAT NONE RECEIVE THE NAME OF LIVING RESIDENTS OF THIS CITY;

SECTION 12.—THAT IN VIEW OF THE FACT THAT A LARGE SUM OF MONEY IS NOW ANNUALLY SPENT IN THE RENTING OF BUILDINGS WHICH ARE IN MOST CASES ILL-ADAPTED FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES, BONDS BE ISSUED FOR THE SECURING OF SCHOOL SITES AND FOR THE ERECTION OF BUILDINGS ADEQUATE TO THE PRESENT NEEDS.

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No part of school administration has aroused within recent years more general interest than the subject of school architecture. The public has gradually been brought to see the importance of this problem<sup>(1)</sup>, and in our larger cities the day of badly constructed buildings is past. Boards of education have awakened to the vital necessity of well-arranged and sanitary schools<sup>(2)</sup> and have realized that school architecture has hitherto not received the consideration that its far-reaching influence demands.<sup>(3)</sup>

(1) "Like a bit of fresh air coming through an open window into an ill-ventilated room, within the last decade there has swept all over the land, penetrating even into the rural districts, the first breath in growing interest in the sanitary condition of our school-houses, conditions which have so much to do with the health of our future citizens, who in many places are spending half of their waking hours in poorly ventilated, badly lighted and uncleanly school-rooms. It is no exaggeration to say that much of the alarming increase in defective vision may be charged to this source, as also that the delicate lung tissues are permanently injured and the whole system wrecked by this daily inhalation of vitiated air, at a time, too, when the child should be laying a firm foundation for physical as well as mental development."—*Jason E. Hammond, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Michigan.*

(2) "Now, as boards of education, I feel that we ought to take an advanced position in this matter, and in the construction and furnishing of our school buildings keep in view the main object of education and its effect upon the future of this country."—*Edmund S. Dewey, in American School Board Journal, Easter Number, 1898.*

(3) "Of all types of buildings, the school building stands out most conspicuously in its want of rational treatment. To secure a perfectly sanitary, useful, convenient, practical, and, lastly, ornamental success in a school building,

Chicago has among the school buildings recently erected admirable examples of what such buildings should be. The sites have been in general well chosen, with due regard to school needs, although this end would have been more fully gained in many cases if the board of education had been able to condemn properties distinctly required for its purposes. School-yards have been provided where it seemed feasible. This feature we especially commend, and in further extension of school accommodations we believe that it should be followed invariably. There can be no question, also, that fire-proof construction should be insisted upon, and that the same care should be given as heretofore to securing proper heating and ventilation. Some criticism has been heard from competent authorities in regard to the lighting of school-rooms, and the attention of the board of education is invited to this point.<sup>(4)</sup> While the general arrangement of our newer buildings is to be commended, we believe that greater variety in architectural appearance would add to the attractiveness of the schools and to the beauty of the city. To this end we suggest competitive plans from the best professional architects.

Since in our elementary schools many studies have been added recently which require the fitting of special rooms, we recommend that due reference to these be taken in the plans of new buildings. Manual training, that is, wood work for boys and domestic science for girls, will prove, we hope, a permanent feature of our course of study, and proper accommodations should be furnished. More may be done perhaps in equipping for work in physical culture, and every school building should be provided with a good assembly hall properly lighted for evening use. In the secondary schools we believe that better provision should be made for the free movement of pupils from room to room<sup>(5)</sup>, and we note in this connection the introduction of elevators in the larger schools of other cities.<sup>(6)</sup>

No sound principle has been followed in the naming of school buildings in Chicago, and the list at present is decidedly incongruous. While it is

deserves the serious attention of every right-minded architect and every public-spirited man connected with the school system."—*A. H. Kirchner, Architect St. Louis (Mo.) School Board, N. E. A. Proceedings, 1898.*

(4) "The medical inspection of the schools, not only in regard to the sanitary condition of the school-house, but in regard to the physical condition of the children, it seems to me should receive more attention. There should be a medical inspector for every large building, at least. He should be paid a salary sufficient to insure the services of a competent man, and his duty should be very clearly defined."—*Henry Sabin, Ex-State Superintendent of Instruction, Iowa.*

(5) This need arises from the customary shifting of the pupils in the high schools to different rooms at the end of each school period.

(6) Philadelphia and Detroit.

well that the names of men, distinguished in the history of the city, should be thus honored, it is safer not to use names of living residents.

The prime necessity of additional school buildings in Chicago has been treated at length. This is a problem which has confronted other cities.<sup>(7)</sup> Chicago should not fall behind New York, which at great sacrifice is deter-

(7) "The subject of school building is an all-absorbing topic in most of the large cities and towns of this country, as well as in some of those in the old world. In England, suffering from overcrowding exists to such a degree the school boards in many places are hiring temporary quarters wherever possible. In London alone, forty school buildings are under construction, not one of which approach in size and accommodation the average public school building of New York. The claim is made that this most universal lack of schools is caused by phenomenal increases of population and want of a proper appreciation of the fact. It must, however, be admitted that any administration awakening to a full realization of affairs, would hesitate before increasing the tax budget \$5,000,000 or \$6,000,000 in any one year. It is perhaps for this, as well as for other reasons that the board of education in New York suffered and did the best possible with the amounts offered from year to year for new schools to meet the ever increasing population.

"From 1884 to 1897 inclusive, bond issue for public school purposes was authorized to the amount of \$33,000,000: 93 school sites were acquired and 94,900 sittings furnished. Notwithstanding the large amounts appropriated, from time to time, immediate results therefrom were not available, as the process of condemnation sometimes occupied upwards of twenty months. The result was the passage of a law limiting the time of condemnation to six months, and this has been finally reduced to four months. Within the next two and a half years New York will have provided nearly 150,000 sittings

"The selection of the school sites has been a problem. Careful consideration of the nature of the soil and the proximity to anything that might create a nuisance or cause annoyance to the work of the school, is necessary.

"Wise legislation and marvelous development in building methods and the cheapening of the introduction of new materials, has placed New York in the enviable position of not having erected any but fire-proof public school buildings since the year 1892. High school and college buildings have been erected in various parts of the country of fire-proof construction, but New York is the only city thus far that has made provision for housing the helpless little children in structures of this character. Boston is preparing to follow the example set, but shrinks from the task even as she marvels how New York introduces gymnasiums and many other features in elementary school buildings while in Boston they are found only in the high school.

"The older school buildings have been noted for their dark, unwholesome, low-ceiled play-rooms; lack of opportunity to obtain fresh water for drinking purposes; inadequate and inferior sanitary accommodations; lack of out-door play-grounds; small, dark, close rooms, over-heated and unventilated, and with two or three children seated at one long desk; wardrobes in the class-rooms; lack of room for physical and manual training, etc.

"In every one of our new buildings successful effort has been made to meet these criticisms. In the first and most essential particular they are fire-proof throughout, of steel skeleton construction, with steel beams and brick arches for the ventilation of the floor system; terra cotta partitions, iron and stone stairs and an abundance of light and air. The indoor play-rooms are large and unobstructed by interior walls. They are about on a level of the street and have high ceilings with plenty of air and light. Their floors are paved with rock asphalt similar to the street pavements. Drinking facilities are furnished so that fifty or sixty children can obtain water at the same time, the troughs to receive the waste being so designed that the children's clothing, large or small, is not wet

mined upon remedying immediately a situation which is far worse than that prevailing in Chicago, and which will involve at least five times the expenditure necessary here. We believe that steps should be taken immediately to repair our admitted deficiencies, either by issuing school bonds for sites and buildings, or by levying for a few years the maximum tax allowed by state law for these purposes.<sup>(8)</sup>

from the spattering of the water. The sanitary conditions are most adequate. The side-walls of the closets are lined with glazed brick, the floors paved with asphalt and the roof is usually provided with skylights, in order to avoid dark corners and consequent uncleanness—for darkness and uncleanness go hand in hand; in fact they are inseparable.

"The class-rooms contain about 625 square feet, lighted usually by one large opening often 16 feet wide by 19 feet in height, thus avoiding the cross lights that are so injurious to a child. Forced ventilation is provided on the basis of thirty cubic feet of fresh air per capita per minute. The children are provided with single desks and seats of the adjustable pattern with isles between each row. All wardrobes for clothing are placed outside the class-rooms, steam pipes being introduced where practicable to dry and warm the clothing and induce a circulation of fresh air. The fifth stories of the newer buildings are fitted up for manual training. Each building is wired for electric lighting, some having their own dynamos complete, thus making them available for evening schools and lecture purposes.

"With a site costing \$14,000 per square foot, or \$300,000 for a building covering little over eight city lots, the amount of ground which can be given for outdoor play-ground is a problem. The solution has been found by providing in addition to the indoor play-room on the first floor and the outdoor play-ground at the rear of the building, a roof play-ground, well protected with fencing, located well above the adjoining houses. The extent in square feet of play-grounds of the newer buildings average about as follows: Inside play-ground, 11,220; outside play-grounds, 4,224; roof play-grounds, 9,527.

"The plan of school number 165, is in the form of a letter H, being placed with the ends of the wings resting on the street lines and the main part of the building parallel with the longer axis and the block thus forming blank walls along the lines of the adjoining property and effectually shutting out all nuisances. Light for the class-rooms is taken from the courts on either side and facing the streets, being self-contained as to air and light, while opportunity for architectural effect is not wanting.

"The average cost per square foot of the non-fire-proof four-story building as erected a few years ago, was about \$14.25. The cost of a five-story fire-proof building as recently erected is but about \$1.60 per square foot more, and it is possible that in the development of this type of architecture this difference will be almost, if not quite, eliminated in the near future."—*C. B. J. Snyder, in Educational Review, January, 1898.*

(8) If the issue of school bonds be authorized, interest on these would be largely met through the saving of rentals, now paid by the board. On the other hand, if the maximum, allowed for building purposes, were levied for three or four years, ample accommodations could be furnished.

## Appendixes.





## Appendix A.

### COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SALARY SCHEDULES AND PER CAPITA COST OF INSTRUCTION.

To make any fair comparison of teachers' salaries is difficult. Not only do living expenses greatly vary in different cities, but the requirements made of teachers in the way of preparatory training and of continuous study after appointment, both of which involve considerable expense, are far greater in some cities than others. These points should be considered carefully in the fixing of teachers' salaries, but they introduce much confusion into a comparative statement of schedules. A city has the right to demand the best service available for the salaries paid and unless inadequate or unjust requirements are made for admission and promotion, the best teachers will be secured. If Boston and New York are able and willing to pay proportionately more to teachers than Baltimore or Washington, they have a right to expect a more competent force. Chicago compares favorably with other cities in the average pay of teachers, as may be seen by the following summary, and if the teaching body fails in efficiency, the reason must be sought rather in an irrational proportionment of salaries and in an unsound plan of promotion.

In Boston, the minimum salary for primary and grammar school teachers is \$552 and the maximum salary is \$936, reached in the ninth year of service. Philadelphia pays a minimum salary of \$470 to primary teachers and of \$670 to teachers in the grammar schools. The maximum reached after five years' service is \$620 in the primary schools and \$820 in the grammar schools, with an additional \$50 for eighth grade teachers and a special schedule for men teachers in the seventh and eighth grades, with a maximum of \$980 and \$1,050 respectively. In St. Louis, elementary teachers are classed as first, second, and third assistants, with salaries varying from \$400 to \$500 for the first year, and from \$560 to \$700 for the fifth year, after which there is no further advance. Brooklyn pays a minimum of \$400 and with gradual advances a maximum of \$700 to primary teachers after six years' service. Grammar school teachers reach a maximum of \$1,000 after seven years. The highest salary paid to elementary teachers in Cincinnati is \$700 for primary and \$800 for grammar grade teachers, attained by length of service and success. Cleveland fixes a maximum of \$700 for primary and \$750 for grammar school teachers, dependent only upon length of service. The minimum salary for primary and grammar school teachers in Chicago is \$500 and the maximum of \$1,000 is reached after ten years' service. The following comparative table of salaries of teachers in high schools was prepared by a committee of the secondary school teachers of Chicago.

CITIES.	MEN.		WOMEN.	
	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.
Albany, N. Y. ....	\$2,500	\$1,000	\$ 800	\$ 700
Boston, Mass. ....	3,000	1,476	1,836	972
Buffalo, N. Y. ....	1,600	600	1,500	400
Baltimore, Md. ....	1,800	---	1,200	600
Chicago, Ill. ....	2,800	850	2,000	850
Cincinnati, O. ....	2,100	1,200	1,200	600
Cleveland, O. ....	1,600	800	1,600	800
Columbus, O. ....	1,600	800	1,400	700
Detroit, Mich. ....	1,800	700	1,400	700
Denver, Colo. ....	1,700	800	1,200	635
Hartford, Conn. ....	2,500	1,500	1,500	800
Indianapolis, Ind. ....	1,500	800	---	---
Kansas City, Mo. ....	2,000	810	1,200	675
Louisville, Ky. ....	1,800	1,000	1,250	1,000
Milwaukee, Wis. ....	1,700	900	1,700	900
Newark, N. J. ....	2,000	1,200	---	---
New Haven, Conn. ....	1,800	690	1,200	600
New York, N. Y. ....	3,000	900	2,500	900
Omaha, Neb. ....	1,400	700	1,400	700
Philadelphia, Pa. ....	3,000	500	1,550	400
Pittsburg, Pa. ....	1,700	650	---	---
Providence, R. I. ....	2,000	600	2,000	600
Rochester, N. Y. ....	2,300	1,000	900	600
St. Paul, Minn. ....	1,400	700	1,100	400
San Francisco, Cal. ....	1,860	1,200	1,860	1,200
St. Louis, Mo. ....	2,400	700	2,400	700
Syracuse, N. Y. ....	1,500	1,000	800	550
Toledo, O. ....	1,500	800	1,200	800
Washington, D. C. ....	1,500	500	1,100	400
Worcester, Mass. ....	2,300	800	1,000	600

These comparative statements show that Chicago has acted generously in fixing the salaries of the teaching force and has therefore a right to demand well-trained, efficient and enthusiastic teachers. The average pay of teachers does not, however, determine fully, and perhaps not even in the largest measure, the excellence of the teaching body. The salaries of different positions must be carefully proportioned. Length of service should be the primary but not the important basis in allotting increase of pay. Successful experience and increased scholarship should be reckoned more vital conditions of promotion. The salary schedule of a city should be framed with the main idea of securing and recognizing the presence of these qualities in the teaching body.

Of our large cities, New York seems to have taken the soundest stand in this matter. The salary schedule of the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, adopted in January, 1898, was drawn up in accordance with the provisions of the city charter.

The salaries of all elementary teachers, except those in the service of the board at the time this by-law became effective, are determined by the following schedule :

#### TEACHERS' SALARY (MEN).

Probationary year, salary.....	\$ 720
Grade 1—Minimum salary for regular teachers.....	1,080
Grade 2—Those who have taught three years in Grade 1 are eligible to apply for .....	1,350
Grade 3—Those who have taught two years in Grade 2 are eligible to apply for. ....	1,620
Grade 4—Those who have taught two years in Grade 3 are eligible to apply for. ....	1,890
Grade 5—Those who have taught two years in Grade 4 are eligible to apply for. ....	2,250

#### TEACHERS' SALARY (WOMEN).

Probationary year, salary.....	\$ 504
Grade 1—Minimum salary for regular teachers.....	576
Grade 2—Those who have taught three years in Grade 1 are eligible to apply for .....	756
Grade 3—Those who have taught two years in Grade 2 are eligible to apply for. ....	936
Grade 4—Those who have taught two years in Grade 3 are eligible to apply for. ....	1,116
Grade 5—Those who have taught two years in Grade 4 are eligible to apply for. ....	1,350

No discrimination is made in the pay of different years in the elementary schools, but it is understood that teachers who receive the highest salaries are to be assigned in general to the first primary grade and to the last two grades of the grammar schools. The admission or promotion of teachers to each of the five grades referred to in the above schedule is based upon an examination to establish the "fitness" and "merit" of the applicants, which are ascertained in the following manner:

"The fitness" of the candidate shall be determined by an inquiry and examination in relation to the following matters, namely: (1) Personal characteristics, in which shall be included morals, habits, temperament and health; (2) Record as a teacher as shown by the reports of the city superintendent and assistant superintendents during the period covered by services in the grade from which advancement is sought, and by statements both oral and written of the principal or principals under whom the candidate may have taught during such period, as to results obtained by him or her in the attendance, scholarship, discipline or promotions of his or her classes; (3) The personal qualifications as a teacher, namely: Ability to impart instruction to classes, ability to maintain discipline, familiarity with the by-laws, rules and regulations of the board of education applicable to class instruction and discipline.

"The 'merit' shall be determined by a written examination in the general knowledge of the candidate in the methods of teaching the subjects of instruction which will be required, and also in such subject or subjects as the applicant may select, which broaden the general culture of a teacher in any direction, as well as in distinctively school work; and the use of the English language and grammar shall be considered in determining the value of the applicant's work.

"The written record of the examination both as to 'fitness' and 'merit' shall be preserved.

"The result of the examination for 'fitness' shall count 50 per cent in the general average, and the examination for 'merit' 50 per cent."

The minimum salary of principals of elementary schools is \$2,750 for men and \$1,700 for women. After three years' service in each class, men may apply for \$3,000 and again for \$3,250, and women for \$2,000 and \$2,200. Men principals who supervise thirty or more classes receive an addition of \$250 and women an additional

\$300. The maximum salary, however, for men principals who supervise nine classes or less, is \$2,500, while women principals of similar schools receive a maximum of \$1,500. Principals are promoted from one class in the salary schedule to another on conditions similar to those affecting regular teachers.

In a small town the superintendent of schools may fairly fix the compensation of teachers within the limits of the appropriation of the board. In a large city a fixed schedule of salaries is essential and must be carefully drawn up to be either effective in securing a good force or fair to the individual teachers. Opinions may differ in regard to the proportionate pay of men and women in the New York schedule, but the provisions in regard to promotion seem to offer a satisfactory solution of the salary problem.

A good basis for a comparison of expenditures for school purposes in various cities might seem to be afforded in a table showing the per capita cost of instruction in a few typical cities. The following table has been accordingly prepared, and furnishes some interesting data, although it is very difficult to deduce any proper conclusions from them. The figures are obtained by dividing the total expenditures for current expenses, including salaries and incidentals, by the number of pupils enrolled, by the average daily membership, and by the average daily attendance. No wide variation in the cost of instruction appears except in the case of St. Louis and of Cleveland, where the maximum salaries for elementary teachers is at least 15 per cent lower than in Boston or Chicago. No fair deduction can be made from such a table, as to the relative economy in administration in these cities, since some of them are much more generous than others in the scope of their provisions for public education.

PER CAPITA COST OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES IN THE  
FOLLOWING CITIES FOR THE YEARS FROM 1893 TO 1897.

FOR ALL CURRENT EXPENSES.

	1893,	1894,	1895,	1896,	1897,	1893,	1894,	1895,	1896,	1897,
	CHICAGO.					PHILADELPHIA.				
Upon number enrolled -----	\$19.72	\$19.26	\$20.22	\$20.68	\$20.47	\$16.83	\$18.10	\$17.67	\$18.47	\$17.98
Upon average daily membership -----	24.55	23.85	24.61	25.12	24.75	21.06	22.78	22.55	23.32	22.47
Upon average daily attendance -----	26.52	25.60	26.40	26.95	26.45	24.52	24.75	25.05	26.80	24.64
	BROOKLYN.					ST. LOUIS.				
Upon number enrolled -----	\$17.62	\$17.59	\$18.05	\$18.30	\$18.46	\$14.36	\$14.23	\$14.59	\$14.75	\$15.12
Upon average daily membership -----	23.26	23.12	23.15	23.22	23.37	18.92	18.27	18.59	18.87	19.05
Upon average daily attendance -----	25.73	26.03	25.37	26.38	26.06	20.72	19.75	20.14	20.44	20.64

	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	BOSTON. (1)					CLEVELAND.				
Upon number enrolled -----	\$20.55	\$20.41	\$20.95	\$20.72	\$21.46	\$18.94	\$18.33	\$18.50	\$18.84	\$18.48
Upon average daily membership -----	23.63	23.32	23.72	24.20	24.65	23.84	23.32	23.42	23.30	22.43
Upon average daily attendance -----	26.69	26.23	26.72	26.98	27.78	24.77	23.87	24.88	24.62	23.63
	MINNEAPOLIS.					DENVER.				
Upon number enrolled -----	\$20.25	\$20.99	\$20.49	\$20.24	\$20.96	----	----	----	\$19.06	\$18.29
Upon average daily membership -----	26.01	26.50	25.27	25.77	25.90	----	----	----	26.68	24.82
Upon average daily attendance -----	27.32	27.54	26.16	26.66	26.80	----	----	----	29.08	26.99

(1) The figures in Boston are based upon the day schools alone.

Reference has been made in various parts of this report to the rapid growth of Chicago and the consequent difficulties of administration involved in the retention of an antiquated plan of management. The following table, showing the number of teachers and of pupils and the expenditures for various purposes during the last nine years, may be, therefore, of interest :

#### OUTLINE STATEMENT OF THE GROWTH OF THE CHICAGO PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM.

YEARS.	NUMBER OF TEACHERS.	NUMBER OF PUPILS.	SALARIES OF TEACHERS.	SCHOOL SUP- PLIES.	TEXT-BOOKS FOR INDIGENT PUPILS.
1890-----	2,711	135,141	\$1,467,663	\$70,650	\$1,959
1891-----	3,001	146,751	2,298,782	93,179	2,686
1892-----	3,300	157,743	2,555,821	85,646	2,799
1893-----	3,520	166,895	2,796,271	110,040	2,358
1894-----	3,812	185,358	3,034,255	118,578	16,108
1895-----	4,326	201,380	3,492,122	131,676	26,242
1896-----	4,668	213,825	3,843,504	126,800	18,007
1897-----	4,914	225,718	4,044,643	124,879	23,298
1898-----	5,268	236,239	4,459,222	141,285	38,670

## Appendix B.

### PUBLIC KINDERGARTENS.

At the request of the Educational Commission, Miss Elizabeth Harrison, of the Chicago Kindergarten College, kindly submitted the following suggestions on the subject of kindergarten work. The connection of the kindergarten with the public school is set forth in its fundamental aspects in the succeeding paper by Professor Edmund J. James, of the University of Chicago.

CHICAGO, October 5, 1898.

*To the Educational Commission—Gentlemen:*

In answer to your recent favor I would say that the best argument for the kindergartens becoming a part of the public school system lies in the fact that the child is taken by the kindergarten at so early a period that his ideas are not yet clearly or definitely molded, and by the kindergartner through her knowledge of the right training of the emotional and its result upon the will and thought, he is easily influenced toward the right lines of conduct, not only by the conversation and stories of the kindergarten, but also by its plays and games in which he enacts the part of ideal family life, workman and citizen, thus gaining through play an impression of the correct relationships.

Coming to the kindergarten so early as his fourth or fifth year, he is trained in courtesy of manner and correct speech without any loss of self-respect, or any seeming criticism upon his home life, good manners and good speech being taken as a matter of course in his new environment, and as experience has often shown, in many cases transferred by him to the home life; we have found that parents as a rule are much more willing to take the innocent corrections and suggestions of their little children than those of older ones.

Again, an important reason for the spending of a due proportion of public money upon children of this age is, that habits of industry and constructive ability are formed before habits of destruction and idleness can have become attractive to the child.

A still more important reason in the eyes of those who are familiar with the workings of the kindergarten is the impetus which it gives to creative and original work on the part of the child training him, as it does, to expect to invent and create new forms, new combinations and new uses of each element of material which he possesses. This, if rightly carried out in the advanced grades, means, in my



judgment, untold added wealth to the community at large by means of the added creativity and increased resources of its citizens.

I need hardly speak of the more apparent advantages, such as habits of punctuality, respect, reverence, co-operation and self-control in which the child is thus early trained before their opposites can be established by the street, the alley and the saloon.

As to the second point, of the best methods for establishing kindergartens in the public schools, we<sup>(1)</sup> would by all means recommend the system now being carried out by the board of education, viz.: That of receiving as applicants for positions in the public school kindergartens, only such kindergartners as have certificates showing that they have had at least two years of study and practice work in some thorough and well recognized training school; out of the number thus selected who pass the examination, we would recommend that those be selected for positions, first, whose personality and general culture is the largest; good health and a pleasant manner are also of great help in good kindergarten work. A certain amount of knowledge of music, especially vocal music, is also an additional recommendation, but this is not an absolute essential in Chicago, as there are three large training centers here, and an instrumental musician can always be supplied from among the volunteers who are serving as cadets in the schools. In my judgment it is far more essential that the kindergartner has a thorough psychological understanding of her materials and of the needs of her children than that she should be able to play for their marches and games, as the latter *can* be supplied by an assistant; the former cannot.

Such rigid and exacting requirements would necessarily prevent any wholesale establishment of kindergartens, but I most strongly recommend that all kindergartens established in Chicago schools shall be well established, even if somewhat slowly. I should say some fifteen or twenty kindergartens, perhaps more, might be thus manned each succeeding year.

The present system of entering all new kindergartners first as assistants, and having tested them in this position, promoting them to a directorship, as is now done in public schools of Chicago, is, in general, the wisest procedure. This, I think, would not necessitate promotion from length of time of employment so much as ability shown by the assistant, as many kindergartners in one year can better show their fitness for the more responsible position of directorship than others in two or three years. This, of course, is a delicate matter and would have to be left to the judgment of the kindergarten supervisor and the kindergarten committee of the board of education. I would suggest that they could be aided by a written report from the kindergarten director in whose kindergarten the candidate for promotion has been at work.

This brings me to your fourth point, which is, viz.: The most economical manner in which Chicago kindergartens can be conducted.

In my judgment the kindergartners in the city of Chicago are paid too large a sum in proportion to the many capable and conscientious workers in the primary grades, who, from the nature of their work, and the greater maturity of the children they have in charge, are required to give two hours more of time in the schoolroom. I would therefore recommend that the salary of paid assistant or advanced cadet be

(1) Miss Harrison is speaking also for Mrs. J. N. Crouse, Joint Principal of the Chicago Kindergarten College.



placed at \$15 or \$20 rather than the salary of the director be cut, or the time allotted the children for attendance upon kindergarten be shortened.

Our reasons for these suggestions are that lowering the salary of the director of the kindergarten would, of necessity, drive many of our best and most experienced directors to other cities where the salaries are larger, and where they are in need of such directors. In the second place, it would lessen in the minds of the assistant or cadet the desirability of the goal to be reached by promotion.

If the salary of the director is kept at a good living price, you will find that many fine, capable women whose homes are in Chicago, or who have means of partially maintaining themselves, will be willing to accept the position of assistant or advanced cadet with the prospect before them of a well paid directorship, whereas if the director's salary is cut the motive for entering the candidacy for a directorship will be lessened.

Should the period given to kindergartens be cut, the efficiency and influence of the work will be lessened in proportion, and the real benefit to be derived from it much interrupted and decreased.

As to economy in material used, I have never yet seen a kindergarten connected with public schools where there did not seem to be a lavish and unnecessary expenditure for materials. Our experience in conducting charity kindergartens has proved to us that after a kindergarten is once furnished with its tables, chairs and gifts, there need not be an expenditure for a kindergarten of forty or fifty children of more than \$3 per month.

Much of the regulation as to current expenses necessarily depends upon the supervisor's watchfulness and the director's ability to make use of the odds and ends of materials.

As to the third point in your letter, viz.: How the work of the kindergarten may be brought into closer connection with that of the primary grades, we would suggest that twice per month the kindergarten and primary teachers of the city meet together; on the first occasion a committee of kindergartners be appointed by their supervisor or the board to explain the kindergarten principles and methods. At the second meeting the primary grade teachers be given the floor and their methods explained.

So far as my personal experience goes I have never known a wide-awake, efficient kindergartner to be connected with a public school where she did not interest the primary grade teachers next to her, and be of much assistance to them in helping them to select the best stories and songs for their children, together with the suggestion of some plays and games and physical exercises which could without injury be transferred from the kindergarten to the primary relaxation. On the other hand, the best primary grade teachers of our city have been of much help to kindergartners in suggesting to them more definite language exercises for the children, and such points of nature study as will prepare the children for their prescribed course in the primary grade.

The highest compliment I have ever heard paid by a primary teacher to a kindergartner has come to me many times in the remark: "The kindergarten children seem to *expect* to be on friendly relations with us at once."

In many cases where the child comes from the home extreme reserve and oftentimes opposition has first to be overcome.

We do not think it advantageous to introduce many of the kindergarten "gifts"

and "occupations" into the primary grades, as most of them are intended for and adapted to the use of children under six years of age. This mistake has been made by many primary teachers in the past. There is some of the material, however, which, if rightly understood, could be advantageously used.

We would also suggest that all earnest and inquiring primary grade teachers should read Froebel's "Education of Man," and from it add to their own high enthusiasm concerning the calling of a teacher.

Thanking you for the courtesy which allows this communication, I remain,

Cordially and sincerely yours,

ELIZABETH HARRISON.

#### THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.(1)

In order to set forth clearly and satisfactorily the thoughts which underlie this paper, it seems necessary to preface the argument with a brief consideration of the basis and province of the kindergarten.

The average child in our society comes in conscious contact during the first six to ten years of his life with four great institutions—the family, the school, the church, and the state. They all share in educating him, both directly and indirectly, for life in human society. The particular share which each of these institutions takes in the education of the child is a varying one, changing with time, place, and circumstance. As a matter of fact, it has been determined thus far in human history, to a large extent, unconsciously—oftentimes seemingly by accident. To a certain extent, indeed, this is true, not only of the distribution of the work of education, but also of all national effort in behalf of education itself. But with every step in human civilization we have come nearer and nearer to the time when public attention shall be more and more concentrated on what is beyond all doubt the most important question in any given generation, viz., that of the education of the next, and the time when the conviction shall be forced home upon the public consciousness with an absolutely irresistible force that all that has been done in education is but the merest beginning, and that we must open our minds and hearts and purses in earnest in the support of this cause if we would look forward to the future of our race with reasonable hope and complacency. There are, fortunately for us, many signs of a deep and general awakening on this important subject, not only in our own midst but across the seas both east and west, in Asia as well as in Europe. Within the last fifteen years a system of popular schools, looking towards bringing the opportunities for a school education within the reach of every child in the community, has finally been established in the southern half of our own country, in England, in France, in Italy, and in other European countries, and in Japan and India. Those who, twenty years ago, would have prophesied that these things would come to pass within this century, would have been derided and ridiculed as little short of lunatics. Who would dare prophesy what the next fifteen years will accomplish in this direction?

Every advance on the formal side of education, ending in the establishment of new institutions, has been accompanied by a no less marked, though not so easily discernible, advance on, what, for lack of a better term, I may call the ideal side. That is to say, the public consciousness is becoming more and more sensible of the fact that we need a more thoughtful, careful, persistent study of the nature of educa-

(1) An address by Edmund J. James, University of Chicago.

tion itself, and of the further fact, that we may determine, to a very large extent, what particular share of this educational work we shall assign to the various institutions mentioned above. In other words, we have already begun consciously to distribute the work of educating the child and to look to these various institutions for certain definite contributions to this all important end. It cannot have escaped the attention of even the most careless observers in this field, that the present tendency in human society is toward assigning a continually increasing sphere in the education of the child to public institutions. It has not been so very long—many of you can remember the time—when the education of the average child in this community was left entirely to the family, the street, and the church, with precious little of the latter. We now offer to the majority of our children the opportunity of free schooling for about eight years of their life, and to a small number the addition of four years more. In other words, we leave, at present, the education of the child until his sixth year entirely in the hands of the family. We then offer to the family the opportunity of calling in the assistance of the school in the education of its younger members for the next eight years of their lives.

One of the great questions now before the educational world is this: Can the family properly look out for the education of the child until its sixth year, and, if it can, does it actually do so, or can we insure its doing so? It is this question then to which I first ask your attention.

We all agree, I think, and at least the society in which we live is agreed, that the family cannot or at least will not properly look out for the education of its children after the sixth year. Now what is the basis of this conclusion? As I look at it, it is simply this: There is a certain minimum of knowledge and training, both mental and moral, which, for the safety and welfare of society, it is necessary should be realized in the great majority of its members. This knowledge and training—education we may call it—can be best acquired in the years from five or six to fourteen or fifteen. If the opportunity for obtaining this minimum is not placed within the reach of the mass of our children at a small expense within those years, it will not be sought either by the children themselves or by their parents for them.

If this be a correct statement of the case, it is evident that our present arrangement is justifiable only on condition that the completion of the fifth year marks the period at which the public education of the child, as distinguished from the family education, may best begin. Whether this be so or not is one of the most vexed questions of pedagogical theory, and I shall not attempt more than to indicate briefly my views on the subject and give my reasons for holding them. We must first state the case clearly, and we shall find, I think, that such a statement will contribute very much toward our arriving at substantial agreement on the most important of the points at issue.

When one speaks of public education, most people think of the education which is given by our schools as at present constituted. This is the source of the first difference in opinion which clearly arises from a misunderstanding. We may grant that the beginning of the sixth year is the proper time for the child to enter school, as that institution is at present organized, and to take up the routine of school duties, and yet maintain that the public education of the child should begin at a much earlier age. All that is necessary to reconcile these two positions is to insist on the necessity of a different institution, which shall look after the education of the child prior to

its entering school. This is practically the position of a large and growing body of theoretical and practical educationalists, and I fully accept their opinion in this respect.

Whether five, six, or seven is the proper age to begin school-work is not by any means a well-settled point, but we may take it for granted, I think, that the time will fall within those limits. Suppose we accept as the proper age that which is generally taken as the beginning of the so-called legal school age, viz., the close of the fifth year. For the sake of argument, then, we may grant that children should not attend school before the age of six years. On the other hand, we maintain that the public education of the child should begin much sooner, meaning by public education simply a systematic training outside of the family and in company with other children, with a view to developing and training the powers of the child-mind. This can be best accomplished in a special institution organized for this particular purpose—an institution which shall bridge over the chasm between the nursery and the school. Such an institution the kindergarten claims to be. There are, therefore, two points to be considered: First, the reason for such an institution; second, the extent to which the kindergarten satisfies the demand.

In discussing the reason for, and the necessity of, such an institution, I shall appeal to two classes of facts: (1) Those of physiology and psychology, and (2) those of the daily life of children, which are patent to us all. Professor Bain, in his "Education as a Science," calls attention to the fact that "The brain grows with great rapidity up to seven years of age; it then attains an average weight of forty ounces in the male. The increase is much slower between seven and fourteen, when it attains forty-five ounces; still slower from fourteen to twenty, when it is very near its greatest size. It would seem pretty clear that there is some connection between intellectual power and brain-growth. Consequently, of the more difficult intellectual exercises, some that would be impossible at five or six are easy at eight through the fact of brain-growth alone. This is consistent with all our experience, and is of value as confirming that experience. It often happens that you try a pupil with a peculiar subject at a certain age and you entirely fail; wait a year or two and you will succeed, and that without seemingly having done anything expressly to lead up to that point, although there will inevitably be within that period some sort of experience that helps to pave the way. In regard to the symbolical and abstract subjects, such as arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and grammar, I think the observation holds. A difference of two or three years will do everything for those subjects.

This, however, is but one aspect, although a very important one of the varying rate of brain-growth. If we follow the analogy of the muscular system, we shall conclude that the times of rapid growth are times of more special susceptibility to the bents imparted at those times. If the brain is still unable to grapple with the higher elements, it is making or may make great progress with the lower; whatever it can take hold of it can fix and engrain with an intensity proportionate to its rate of growth.

These two facts indicate the Scylla and Charybis between which the educationist and the educational system must steer with great care. On the one hand, we must be careful not to introduce any elements into the education of the child which are out of the reach of its intellectual effort, as that might dwarf and stunt or even destroy its growing powers. On the other, we must be sure to introduce them just



as rapidly as the mind grows up to them or we shall fail to make the desired impression at the right time. If we begin too early we may interfere with the powers needed for growth, or, if it should not be quite so bad as this, it will take a much greater expenditure of nervous force than would be necessary at a later stage. We begin too late if we allow time to pass by when good and useful impressions could be made with perfect safety to the physical and mental health.

This point is so exceedingly important that I may be pardoned if I repeat it in a little different form. In the physical growth of the child it passes through a series of stages, at each of which the wants of the body call for a different diet. If you attempt to feed the young infant on bread and meat, you will, in all probability, destroy the organism. If you fail to incorporate the proper elements in its diet, the result will be seen in impaired nutrition and backward development. It is just as fatal to healthy growth to fail to add the new elements as they are needed as it is to introduce them prematurely. There is a succession of tides in the physical development of the child which must be taken at their flood if we are to hope for the best results. It is just so in his mental development. When the time comes for a given impression, and the time goes by without it being made, it is a lost opportunity—gone never to return. At the very least, it means that the impression, if it ever be gained, will be acquired at an increased cost, while it may, also, and often does, mean that it will never be acquired at all. I cannot help believing that the old education erred not only in the direction of introducing subjects to the child prematurely, but also, and quite as seriously, in the opposite direction of failing to introduce much to the child in its earlier years which it should have introduced; and to-day we are, I think, much nearer correcting the sin of commission than the equally serious one of omission.

We have not as yet obtained a satisfactory estimate of the relative educational values of the different years of childhood. But nearly all observers and students of the subject, nearly all psychologists and thoughtful teachers, agree that for certain classes of impressions the first six or seven years of the child are worth all the rest put together. Why do we find so many dull children in our families, in the street, and in the school? I believe that we shall come to see more and more with the lapse of time that our education or lack of education is responsible for very much of this dullness. The crisis in the child's life came and passed unnoticed. No thoughtful helper was at hand to offer just the food which his mental stomach craved, and when the food came the time for it was long past—the child had been practically condemned to become a dwarfed and stunted member of society. So much for what I should call the physiological argument.

It is not necessary, however, to go to physiology or psychology for a very striking and, to my mind, conclusive proof that the period between the nursery and the school is one of the most valuable of all for conveying and deepening impressions. How many of us have seen, either in our own children or those of others, or both, most striking evidences of an all pervading and never resting curiosity? The child wishes to know everything and asks endless questions about things above and beneath the earth. Now this insatiable curiosity, which is in the child only a reflection of the same quality in the race, may, under proper guidance, become the most powerful of educational instruments. But how often, pray, is it under such guidance? It is the rule that this most valuable of all



mental attitudes is gradually worn away by the conduct of mothers, of fathers, of sisters, of brothers, and friends. "Go away; don't bother me, you little fool, with your eternal questions; you are enough to try the patience of a saint"—is, perhaps, the most common form of putting a quietus on the questioning spirit. It takes a long while, sometimes, even with such vigorous treatment, to kill out or beat down this desire and practice of questioning everything. But it has generally so far succeeded by the time the child starts to school that the teacher must begin her work by trying to revive this passion in the child by her cunning devices. It cannot be expected that the average parent, or even the average servant girl, to whom our wealthy people leave their precious charges most of the time, can be prepared, I will not say to answer all these questions, for that not even Solomon with all his wisdom could do, but to take advantage of these questions to direct and train the child's attention along lines from which it can hope to derive profit. Nobody can do this in a satisfactory manner but one who has made the study of child-life and the mind the serious occupation of his life. And when we think of the glorious opportunities which are all the while being lost to our children for the lack of just such people in charge of them, it makes the heart sick on account of hope deferred; for how can we hope to see society move on at any reasonable rate of speed so long as we allow these invaluable powers to go to waste in the present wholesale manner.

But there is still another reason why there is great need of an intermediate institution between the nursery and the school, and that is the great desire on the part of children, who have grown old enough to run out of the nursery, for the companionship of their fellow children. It is not necessary for me to enlarge upon this thought. It is a fact patent to all. Nor is this a desire which it is safe not to gratify. Since our children must live in the society of their fellow-men, they cannot begin too soon that education which comes from well-ordered intercourse with their equals. The moral education of the child does not, practically cannot, begin until he comes in contact with other children of equal age, and tries to live with them and enter into their lives and let them enter into his. This element cannot be found within the family. It must be sought without. The question then comes, where is it to be found? As a matter of fact, it is generally sought in the street—oftentimes without any supervision, generally with no better supervision than that which an elder brother or sister or a servant girl can give. It would not seem to need much argument to prove, that the education of the child in all that relates to his duties to his fellow-men can be best begun by such intercourse with his fellows under the care of one who has made it his business to teach and train such children.

If these considerations be just, it must follow that there is great need for some kind of an educational institution which shall begin with the child as soon as he leaves the nursery and take him along in the years which elapse until his mental maturity is such that he is fit to enter the school and take up its systematic and long continued labors. It will not do to say that the family can and will do this. The average mother has no time to look after the intellectual and moral development of her child in the proper way. Even if she had the time she is utterly unfit by education and training to undertake any such thing, and if she attempted it she would likely do more harm than good. Moreover, the very best

mother cannot by any possibility be to her little child what his playmates are. She cannot take their place as companions for him, and wherever it is attempted the results are disastrous in the extreme. The more confident a mother is that she can do this the more striking the proof of her utter unfitness for the work. Such an institution then is a necessity, not only for the poor child whose out-door life must be spent in the street, but just as necessary for the child of parents of wealth and leisure. It is, in other words, a permanent category in educational life, and should form an integral part of every educational system.

Now the kindergarten claims to be just such an institution, and I believe that, in its best specimens, it fairly justifies the claim. I am aware that there is much nonsense talked upon this subject. Some of its most enthusiastic votaries, who are at the same time its worst enemies, talk as if it were now a perfect institution—a very absurd claim, of course, in view of the fact that so much is still unknown about the limits and sequence of the development of the human faculties. After making due allowance, however, for all the curious vagaries of the friends of the kindergarten, it must still be admitted that there is a valuable residuum left which is worth our serious attention. It is, at any rate, the only thing we have. At its best it is very good, and at its worst is capable of improvement, while, as a rule, it is vastly better than nothing.

It now remains to discuss the relation of the kindergarten to our public educational system. If you have followed me thus far you will have no difficulty in inferring my conclusion that the kindergarten should be made an integral part of our system of public education. If it supplies an imperative want of society, and at the same time a want which private enterprise will not supply, there remains only one thing to do, and that is for society to assume the burden of its support. That private enterprise will not supply it adequately, I think, is perfectly plain from the whole history of education. In no free country, at no time and under no circumstances, have large educational institutions of a high rank been supported entirely at private expense. It was formerly the argument against free schools, that if there were any real demand for education it would be met by the establishment of new schools, and as for those people who would not or could not pay tuition—why, they would not send their children anyhow, since people valued only that for which they paid something. Adam Smith said a century ago, that “an elementary school system could be supported from fees alone.” There is no doubt about that, I suppose. The whole question is, whether such a free-school system would be worth anything or not. It is certain that no system of schools which is expected to reach the great majority of our children could at the present day be supported by fees alone, and so convinced have we become that popular education in the widest sense is impossible, except on the basis of free schools, that we have now formally adopted that system in every state in the Union. So successful has it been, that it is only a question of time, and that not a very long time either, when the leading European nations will follow our example.

The same thing is true of the kindergarten as of our schools. Its advantages will never be open to the masses of the people until it has been incorporated into our public school system and thrown open free of charge to all children in the community. The drift of events is steadily toward this consummation, and all the signs of the times indicate its steady, though at times slow, approach.

This policy is to be justified, in my opinion, on the same grounds exactly as those which have been urged with so much success in favor of the free public school. It is necessary to secure a certain minimum of education in the great mass of the people—a minimum, too, which, fortunately, is continually rising. We cannot hope to get this minimum if we allow the three years of most favorable opportunity to go to waste as we are now doing. What would be the objection to putting the school age from ten to eighteen, instead of from six to fourteen as at present? There would be two very serious objections: (1) four of the most valuable years of the child would go to waste, making it simply impossible to achieve any valuable results; (2) not more than one child would go from fourteen to eighteen where twenty go from six to ten. Even as it is now, the great majority of our children do not go after they become ten or twelve years of age, so that the practical school age, under present circumstances, does not include more than four or five years for most of the children. The decrease in the number of children, as one goes up in the school grades, is one of the most lamentable facts of our educational system. Now it may be possible to prevent this to some extent by changing the character of the schools in the direction of greater practicalness, such as would be secured by the general introduction of industrial training and similar improvements; but the real cause of most of this decrease, particularly in the upper grades, is to be found in the fact that the children at ten or twelve can begin to earn something, and as soon as they can they must. This cause is likely to be an enduring one, and we cannot probably remove it for a long time to come.

The case lies then as follows: Three years from the nursery to the school wasted, or worse than wasted, for educational purposes; four or five years spent in the school—a period which is utterly inadequate to acquire the desired degree of education, and no great hope of extending this period for some time to come. What shall be done? It seems to me the answer is clear: utilize those three years which now go to waste, and during which you can get hold of the children and thus make up as far as possible for the years which you cannot get from ten or twelve to thirteen or fifteen. Do not misunderstand me. I do not wish to shorten the school age at all, rather lengthen it, so that as long as there is a child, youth, or adult in the community without an education he shall have the opportunity to avail himself of such advantages as are offered. But by all means utilize these three years by which you may lengthen the actual period of education to the average child from four to seven years, because in this way you can attain the best educational results. The free public kindergarten may be justified then on the ground that it is the best if not the only means of attaining the object of all public educational systems, viz., popular education. It is the usual testimony of thoughtful teachers, that children who have had three years in a good kindergarten can make much more rapid progress in their regular school work than those who have lead the hap-hazard sort of life which generally falls to the lot of children in that period, and whether this be so or not, no one who has studied the subject, can doubt that the life of the kindergarten pupil is fuller and richer by far than it would have been without this training.

I am fully aware that this step means a very large increase of our appropriations for school purposes, but I believe that it will richly repay us for all our outlay.

The most striking fact in our modern financial budgets—local, state, and general,

in this country and in Europe—is the rapid increase in the expenditures for school purposes. It has already become the largest single item in our local and state budgets, and all the indications point to its early incorporation in our national budget, for, if the Blair bill passes, or any similar one, the Federal government will begin a policy which, in my opinion, will not be stopped, of making large annual grants to the cause of education. This large expenditure, in spite of mismanagement and misapplication, has proved, as a whole, very profitable to the communities which have made it, and I believe that we are just making a fair beginning in this direction. We shall make heavier and heavier outlays for this purpose.

On the other hand, I believe that such outlays, viewed merely as investments of so much capital on the part of society, will make the largest kind of returns.

The educational policy of a country should be directed toward developing all its intellectual wealth, just as its economic policy should look toward developing its material wealth. Our present educational system, both in its lower and higher members, is as incomplete and unsatisfactory when viewed from this aspect as would be our economic policy if, instead of encouraging by our laws the rise of many or all kinds of industry, we should direct all our efforts toward utilizing our coal deposits alone. It has not been so very long, for example, since the only kind of higher institution in this country was the old-fashioned college with its ironcast course of Latin, Greek and Mathematics. The only kind of talent which we, as a country, were utilizing was that very scarce fraction which could be developed by an exclusively literary training. Even in the common school "readin, ritin, and rithmetic" formed the beginning and the end of all "larnin." Those to whom the most mechanical presentation of these subjects did not appeal were voted hopelessly dull, and forthwith shut out from all so-called higher education. One hundred and twenty-five years ago the only so-called higher institution of learning in the country was the college, the only secondary institution the academy, and the only primary school the old-fashioned a-b-c and parsing machine. There was no medical, dental, law, veterinary or technical school of any kind, no normal school, no industrial school, no school of art or design, no business college—nothing, absolutely nothing, but the college and the theological seminary. Every step of our educational advance has been marked by the establishment of some new kind of school or the expansion of some old one, in such a way as to amount to the same thing. The rise of these new institutions has been accompanied by an enormous increase in the material and intellectual resources of the race. It is fair to claim that the enormously rapid growth of modern communities in all that distinguishes civilization from barbarism, as compared with ancient communities, is due to the fact that we are at last beginning to utilize for the first time in human history some small part of the intellectual power of the race. Just consider for a moment. The ancient Greek had no place in his society for the student of natural science—no place for a Galileo, or Newton, or Huxley, or Helmholtz, or Harvey, or Pasteur, or Stephenson, or Watt, or Whitney, or Edison—no means of calling them forth, no means of encouraging them if they had been at hand, or rather a most efficient means which he was not slow to use of forcing them down and eliminating them from society. Even such a man as Socrates thought that people who busied themselves about such things were worse than useless, and at least should be the slaves of the rest. That was twenty-two centuries ago, and yet it has only been within the memory of some of the youngest of us that

even the most advanced of our American colleges have finally opened a place for such men within their sacred walls. The whole history of human education, nay, of human civilization itself, is but the history of a long series of melancholy attempts to limit in every possible way the development of new talent and ability. It is only within this century, and indeed almost within this generation, that we are finally coming to see that there is an infinite variety of human talent and taste, and an infinite variety of possible science, and that we can expect to utilize the former fully for our benefit only when the latter is made as accessible as possible to all alike. This means, of course, the establishment and development of new kinds of schools, which shall bring home to each type of mind in our society the opportunity of finding that for which it is specially and peculiarly suited, and this in spite of much opposition from some quarters, and all too slowly in most places, we are finally making up our minds to do, and have, indeed, already made a fair beginning in that direction.

This work is important, and must and will go on. But there is another aspect to the question which specially interests us in this connection. All these institutions are for the advanced child—the child whose tastes are already to some extent formed or destroyed—the range of whose senses has already been to a great extent circumscribed. If we would be consistent, if we would attain the most valuable results, we must go back of this point in our educational processes, we must get at the child during the period of most rapid growth; we must seek an opportunity to call forth and train in the right way all its mental powers, to evoke, if possible, all the varieties of its activity at the very time when this can be done to the most advantage. It is only in this way that we can hope to awaken and keep alive all the possibilities of the future man; only in this way that we can hope to develop and utilize all the mental wealth of our society.

The kindergarten, or some institution of that kind, can do this very work. It can take the child at the earliest practicable age; can train its eye to see, its ear to hear, its tongue to speak, its hands to do. Can call forth and train its sense for beauty, for color, for rhythm, for order, both in the material and moral world. Can develop its sense of duty and justice, thus helping it into right relations toward its surroundings in the home and in society—all things of fundamental importance to every one of us, rich and poor, laborer and capitalist, ignorant and wise—and, moreover, all things which can be best started in those very years, and should be started under proper guidance. A wrong bent in this period, a neglect at this time, can never be made good by any amount of after training.

If we are agreed then so far (1) that the kindergarten, or some similar institution, is necessary to a complete educational system; (2) that it is a logical and necessary complement of our present system of free public education, if the ends for which the latter is organized are to be achieved; (3) that it is bound to become an integral part of this system, the only remaining question is this: What is the first thing to be done by those who wish to bring about this ultimate result as soon as possible?

It is not necessary to say to you that the character of a school is determined by its teacher; we all know that. The same thing is true, in a still larger sense perhaps, of the kindergarten. Whether the kindergarten is worth anything or not depends entirely upon the teacher, and the first requisition therefore in any system of kindergartens is to have a sufficient number of properly qualified, specially trained, kindergarten teachers. The supply of such teachers will not be large enough unless

there is an adequate opportunity for their proper education. Such an opportunity can be found only in a public training school for kindergarten teachers, and such a school we must have if we wish to see the kindergartens generally established.

Perhaps, however, the most judicious step for the present would be the establishment of a kindergarten class in connection with our present city normal school, into which those young women could go, who, by taste, incline to that branch of the work. It should be organized, of course, in connection with an actual kindergarten, and under the care of the best trainer of kindergarten teachers who can be found in the country. The kindergartens now in existence under your care should be liberally supported by the city, the salaries of the teachers advanced, and the positions made practically permanent. In this way a career could be opened for those young women who have tastes in this direction, and the career should be made at least as desirable as that of any other career in connection with public school work.

Another advantage in connecting it with the normal school would be that those young women who are preparing for primary work could also have an opportunity to see something of kindergarten work. In my opinion, no teacher should be allowed to go into a primary school who had not studied, both theoretically and practically, the kindergarten and its work.

In conclusion, I would summarize what I have already said:

(1) That the three years preceding the school age are, for certain educational purposes, the most valuable years of the child's life.

(2) That under our present system of public and private education these years are, relatively speaking, wasted.

(3) That this waste is just as general among the rich as among the poor, and is little less ruinous to the former than to the latter.

(4) That it may be largely saved by the general introduction of some such institution as the kindergarten.

(5) That such general introduction is only possible in the form of free kindergartens, established in connection with our public schools, in sufficient numbers to accommodate all children sent to them.

(6) That the necessary outlay for such kindergartens would be amply repaid to society by the increased productiveness of the generation educated within them.

(7) That, owing to the economic conditions of our society, which prevent the majority of our children from going to school beyond the tenth year, the only means of securing the minimum of education absolutely necessary to the welfare of our society lies in utilizing for educational purposes the three years preceding the school age, and the only institution which promises to do this is the kindergarten.

(8) That the essential condition of success in this movement is a supply of properly trained teachers, which can be insured only by the establishment of an adequately equipped training school for kindergarten teachers.

(9) That the first step towards this is the establishment of a kindergarten class in connection with the city normal school.



## Appendix C.

### COMMERCIAL TRAINING IN EUROPE AND THE UNITED STATES.

#### A. COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS IN EUROPE.

Public attention has only recently been directed in the United States to the importance of commercial training and almost nothing has been done so far among us in this direction. Our "business colleges" have been of considerable service in giving young men and women a command of the "facilities—stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, etc.—of ordinary business; but nowhere has there been any serious attempt to afford a sound, broad preparation for commercial and industrial pursuits. In Europe, on the contrary, there has been developed in the last thirty years a large number of secondary schools of commerce, admirable alike in board conception, in comprehensive execution and in practical results. Founded originally by private or semi-public bodies, they are now liberally supported by the city and national governments.

The school of commerce at Venice is interesting not only as one of the earliest schools of this kind, but also on account of the breadth of its foundation. The city and province joined in 1866 with the government in establishing not only a higher school of commerce, but a law faculty for those looking forward to the consular career and a normal school to prepare teachers to give instruction in foreign languages and commercial science. The first year's work is alike for all. A thorough grounding is given in Italian literature, in commercial arithmetic and geography, in the institutions of commerce and the study of commercial products, in algebra and the elements of the civil law and in the French, German and English languages. The succeeding two years continue these lines and add a study of commercial, maritime and industrial law, the history of commerce and commercial statistics and political economy. In the consular section an additional two years' course is given, after which the graduates find, as it appears, ready admission to government service. In connection with the school the city has established a commercial museum, which has proved of great value as offering the basis for a comparative study of raw materials and manufactured products of different countries. Not only Venice, but Florence, Turin, Genoa, Naples and Rome have established higher schools of commerce, and many smaller cities have followed their lead, until now the peninsula is fairly dotted with them all the way from the Alps to Sicily.

In France the subject of commercial education has received special attention for a number of years. Schools of commerce are maintained directly or subsidized by the state in all the large cities. One of the best examples is the *Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales*, founded in 1881 by the Paris Chamber of Commerce, which had already assumed, in 1868, the management of the Superior School of Commerce.

In addition to these two schools, the Paris Chamber of Commerce controls also a third, located in the Avenue Trudaine. At Lyons, Marseilles and Havre private corporations have founded commercial schools. Others are flourishing at Rouen, Bordeaux and Rheims. These schools have so justified themselves in the eyes of the French public that the government has subsidized them to a considerable extent and has granted an appropriation for traveling scholarships for their graduates, in order to assist in extending the field of commercial activity abroad.

While much has been done in commercial education in Italy, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, the best examples of such schools are found in the German-speaking countries. Austria was foremost in the field, and there we find not only the Commercial Academy in Vienna, established by the Chamber of Commerce, but also a new "export academy," under government auspices, with a yearly subsidy of \$8,000 and a similar grant from the Chamber of Commerce. Both of these schools have full courses extending through three years, while the conditions of admission are high enough to justify for them fully the rank of secondary institutions. In Graz, Innsbruck, Linz, Aussig and Prague there are flourishing schools, with enrollments of from 300 to 500 pupils. Many smaller but commercially important cities have similar institutions, and throughout Austria-Hungary we find not less than fifty commercial schools of various grades.

Germany proper, however, is the true home of the commercial school. Here its importance was early recognized, and earnest efforts have been made to solve in this way the preparation for modern business activity. In the province of Brandenburg, in the Kingdom of Prussia, there are fourteen commercial "continuation schools." In the Rhine provinces there are twenty-one, including the one at Aix-la-Chapelle, recently so splendidly housed by the city in new quarters. In the province of Saxony there are eleven; in Hannover, twelve; in Schleswig-Holstein flourishing schools at Kiel, Flensburg and Schleswig; in Westphalia, ten, and nearly two-score more in the smaller provinces of Prussia; in Bavaria, eighteen; in the Kingdom of Saxony, not less than forty; in Wurttemberg and in the duchies and grand duchies, nearly fifty, while the old commercial cities of the Hansa league are not behind in this systematic effort to advance the commercial and industrial prosperity of the country.

These efforts have not been in vain, and probably to no one thing does Germany owe today her foremost commercial position more than to her commercial schools, which have turned out thousands of young men well equipped for business pursuits. Her success is well deserved, for she has worked out an unparalleled system of commercial training from the supplementary evening schools in the small community to the recently established Leipsic College of Commerce, which is fully up to the university grade. No fact is so striking as the thoroughgoing way in which this has been done. This thoroughness can be more easily seen perhaps by glancing over the following weekly hour-plan of the Leipsic Public School of Commerce:

	-----Hours-----		
	3d class.	2d class.	1st class.
German .....	4	3	3
English .....	5	4	4
French .....	5	4	4
Mathematics .....	3	3	4
Commercial arithmetic .....	5	3	2

	Hours		
	3d class.	2d class.	1st class.
Physics .....	3	2	..
Mechanical technology .....	..	..	2
Chemistry .....	..	2	2
Study of products .....	..	..	1
Geography .....	2	2	2
History .....	2	2	2
Commercial science .....	..	2	..
Commercial law .....	..	..	1
Office work .....	..	2	..
Correspondence .....	..	..	2
Bookkeeping .....	..	..	3
Political economy .....	..	..	2
Penmanship .....	3	2	..
Drawing .....	2	2	..
Athletics .....	2	2	2
Total .....	36	35	36

Instruction is also given as optional work in:

	Hours		
	3d class.	2d class.	1st class.
Italian .....	..	2	2
Spanish .....	..	..	2
Stenography .....	2	1	1

The Leipsic course of study is practically duplicated in something like two-score schools in German-speaking countries. This curriculum has been worked out after an experience of more than forty years. Instruction is given by a separate corps of teachers specially trained for this work and with the aid of textbooks prepared specifically for commercial schools. It is safe to say that no subject included in the course is taught in the same way as in other schools of like grade. This is true even of the modern language work, which after the initial preparation in the grammar is treated in a very different manner from that of the ordinary gymnasium or real school.

England has come to a realizing sense of the deficiencies in business training more particularly through noticing the extent to which English firms are preferring to employ German-trained clerks. The London Chamber of Commerce is granting certificates to students, who can show proficiency in commercial instruction. It has given prizes and scholarships to those most successful in examinations, and more than 300 firms and business men who are members of the London chamber, have agreed to prefer for their service those who hold commercial certificates. The technical education board and the City of London College are uniting in the establishment of a higher commercial school in connection with that institution. The plan now proposed clearly recognizes the inadequacy of a six-months or one-year course as having about as much relation to effective commercial training as the ability to hold a plane has to a broad course in architectural engineering. The same idea has been clearly grasped in New York, where even a four years' course in the ordinary city high schools is recognized as insufficient and where the demand is strong for a distinctive secondary school of commerce.

In considering the project of a Commercial High School, I shall pursue mainly two lines of thought—first, the relation of such an institution to the educational system in general, and, second, its relation to the business interests of the community.

And first, as to its educational or pedagogical aspects. All secondary education should have a liberal tendency. Its main object should be to train the pupils to think, to aid them in getting possession of all their powers and in acquiring habits of order, neatness, promptness and fidelity. It should be regarded in a pre-eminent sense as a foundation upon which the pupil may build safely and rapidly in the future years. For a long time men thought that the study of the classics and mathematics was the only method of laying such foundations, and even now the influence of that idea still remains powerful in the field of secondary education.

This idea did comparatively little harm as long as the mediæval conditions of life in which the idea originated still existed. But when the modern era opened and natural science with all its wonderful achievements started into life, it was only with the very greatest difficulty that it could secure any representation whatever in our schools and colleges, owing to the prevalence of the idea above mentioned. The adherents of the old style of education were not content with preserving it as one of the pathways toward culture—side by side with education based on modern subjects—but they insisted that it should still remain the only one.

The attempt was, of course, predoomed to failure—as surely as the later contest of the stage-owners and stage-drivers against the railways—but it served to hinder progress for a long period. Natural science, however, finally made its way into the schools and a road to culture was cast up, based on modern subjects.

The history of education repeated itself again immediately. The defenders of the old and the champions of the new education combined to prevent any further innovations. The representatives of natural science joined with the defenders of the classics in maintaining that there are only two roads to true culture—the classics and natural science. An illustration of this tendency was afforded a few years ago, when the movement in favor of Manual Training High Schools was begun. These two parties united in opposing the introduction of the so-called Manual Training Schools, on the ground that their curriculum could offer no suitable intellectual training. But the Manual Training Schools are demonstrating that there is still another road to culture besides that through the classics, mathematics and natural sciences—in the narrow sense in which the last term is sometimes used.

And now those of us who believe in the training furnished by the Commercial High School as one of the legitimate avenues to education, maintain that there is still another highway to that state of mind and heart known as culture. Just as the study of human history—as expressed in language and literature; or as the study of the external world, as in natural science; or as the study of the principles of mechanical and artistic creation may lead the child on to the fullest development of its powers—one line of work appealing to one child and another to another; so the study of human history, as revealed in the relation of man to his environment, looked upon as a means of supplying his wants (Political Economy), and the study of human history as revealed in the development and organization of the complex machinery of business and society (Politics and Sociology) are

<sup>(1)</sup> Address by Edmund J. James, University of Chicago.

as truly means of mental development as any of the preceding, and appeal to some children, to whom any of the former is a weariness of the flesh.

And just as the study of the classics will accomplish the highest educational result for one type of mind, and that of natural science for another, and that of mechanics and art for another, so that of politics and economics and business will do it for still another.

As educationists, we plead for this school in the interest of the educational enrichment of our scheme of public training. There are boys in our community to whom none of the existing courses appeal, whom this course would be a means of awakening, arousing, training, educating.

To put it in another way, all of us believe that a proper educational foundation is absolutely necessary, and that the period of secondary education is the time for laying such foundation; but we cannot concede that there is only one kind of proper foundation. On the contrary, just as the character of the soil and the surrounding circumstances make a foundation which would be suitable for one building entirely unsuitable for another, so the variety in the structure of boys' minds, in their tastes, their inherited tendencies, their ambitions, point to the fact that no one scheme of education can lay a suitable foundation for all boys in the community.

Variety of schools and courses is, in our view, absolutely necessary to develop the latent intellectual wealth of society. These courses should be all thorough, liberal, culture-giving—and there should, in the interest of education itself, be at least four such schools—one devoted to Language, Literature and Mathematics; another to Mathematics and Natural Science; another to the principles underlying mechanical and artistic creation; and still another to Politics, Economics and Business. The first two exist now, in the ordinary high schools. The third is provided for by our manual training schools. The fourth we are arguing for at present. It is not proposed that any one of these courses should exclude all the elements of the other. Quite the contrary. Each one would contain necessarily much that is found in the others; but it is meant simply that the various courses shall be built up around the respective nuclei indicated.

It will thus be seen that while we argue for a Commercial High School, which shall answer the wants of a new class in the community, we are not asking for a trade school in any different sense from that in which the present high schools or the manual training schools are technical or trade schools. The object of all three alike is liberal education, is foundation laying; the only difference is in the subject matter of instruction used for the purpose.

Having thus indicated our idea as to the relation of this school in an educational way to existing schools, a point to which I shall again revert at the end of the paper, and having suggested its pedagogical justification, let us see what such a school would be in its relation to the life of the community at large.

In the midst of the recent renaissance of public interest in everything which concerns the welfare of our community, certainly the promotion of our trade and commerce should not be overlooked. In a great manufacturing center we sometimes lose sight of the fundamental importance of trade to modern business. There is, of course, no danger of the commercial members of society failing to realize its function, but the great mass of the community may easily underestimate the rôle

which commerce and commercial organization plays in our modern industrial communities.

It may well be questioned whether, even in the case of the individual manufacturer, his prosperity, his industrial solidity, does not depend quite as much, in the long run, upon his ability to market his wares well, *i. e.*, upon his ability as a merchant, as it does upon his ability to manufacture efficiently, *i. e.*, cheaply; and there can be no doubt at all that a nation cannot be a great manufacturing nation under modern conditions unless it be also a great commercial nation. The supremacy of England in the world market of to-day is due quite as much to the enterprise of English traders as to the skill of English manufacturers.

Nor must we forget that while the function of the trader in *foreign* commerce is unquestioned, it is none the less important in our domestic intercourse. The welfare of a manufacturing industry depends to a large extent upon the ability of its enterprisers to gauge the varying wants of different communities and to adapt their industry to the production of the things which are wanted, or which, in common parlance, will sell. This last work, *i. e.*, the study of the public tastes and demands, is par excellence the work of the trader, and it is none the less commercial in character because the successful manufacturer devotes much time and attention to it, because that simply means that the manufacturer himself is, in so far, a trader.

Our manufacturing interest, then, can never attain that place which it might, nor even hold its present proud position, unless our commercial enterprise hold pace with it or even outrun it. The rapid growth of New York as a manufacturing center finds its explanation in large part in its extraordinary growth along commercial lines.

But I am sure that I need not dwell further on this point before an audience like this. The essential importance of our city's trade to our city's prosperity you will all concede.

I will content myself, therefore, with one more remark on this subject, and that is, that it seems to me that the possibility of establishing and extending our commercial connections seems to be even more important now than ever before in our history.

The growing capacity of our mills cannot be utilized unless we find new and more fruitful markets either at home or abroad; and if their growing capacity cannot be utilized, the possibility of efficient production will be much diminished. The finding out of new markets is a function of the trader. I said new markets either at home or abroad. I believe that our manufacturing industry has reached a state along many lines which would enable it to compete under present conditions in the world market, if we had a race of traders who would search out the wants of foreign countries and induce our manufacturers to consult their peculiarities.

If the tendency now prevalent in congress shall have its way, and our tariff policy is destined to be radically changed, I see no salvation for American manufacturing industry except to throw itself as never before into the fields where it is at a relative advantage, and press out into the competition for foreign markets which is now so keen in Europe. In this work our commercial enterprise must again come to the front, or our endeavors will be in vain.

In this new struggle for industrial supremacy there seems no reason in the nature of things why this city should be left far in the rear. Its situation is favor-



able, and if it should develop half the enterprise in the way of improving and defending its position which has been shown of late years by several great European cities—notably Hamburg, Antwerp, Geneva, and lately Manchester—it would again start on a career of commercial expansion which would enable it to hold its own for all time to come, even if it could not hope to regain its old position at the head of American commerce as well as industry.

In the brief time at my disposal this evening I cannot, of course, undertake even to mention all the conditions of a flourishing trade, or to outline, even in the meagerest way, the policy we must follow if we would hold our own in commerce and manufacturing under present conditions; nor, even if I had the time, do I flatter myself that I should be able to do it.

On the other hand, it has been my business for some years to contemplate, as a student, the great world of modern business, and to utilize the result of my studies in the work of education; and in the course of my studies, here and elsewhere, I have arrived at certain conclusions as to the importance of some elements in this problem which are often neglected, and it is one of these which I wish to present this evening.

Manifold and complicated are the conditions which determine the commercial prosperity or decadence of a city or a country—and he who assigns any one reason for it demonstrates his incapacity in this department of human investigation. Without wishing to assign too much importance to the following consideration, we may yet claim that it is a very fundamental condition of a flourishing trade that the directors of commerce and industry—those selected few who by their natural talents and acquired skill have become the captains and princes in industry and trade—shall find it possible to obtain efficient assistance in their enterprises. The average man and woman in our society will never reach a loftier position than that of high private; but the possibility of achievement on the part of great commanders, whether in war or trade, depends primarily upon the degree of intelligence and efficiency to be found in the average private.

Is there an adequate provision for this need in our community? Does the director of business enterprises find it easy to get the right kind of assistance? Ask any intelligent and successful business man among your acquaintances. I am not talking now, of course, of clerks, or stenographers, or typewriters, or book-keepers—whose business is largely mechanical, though even in this department it is safe to say that of fifty candidates for any fairly responsible position, not more than five can be considered eligible. I am thinking of positions which demand fidelity, intelligence, special knowledge and sound judgment—responsible and discretionary positions, in other words—positions in which initiative enterprise and reliable qualities are called for. I take it there can be only one answer to this question, unless our experience has been very different from that of business men in other cities and other countries.

My proposition, then, is that a school of the grade of the ordinary city high school, whose curriculum should be made up to a considerable extent of subjects relating to modern trade and industry—its origin, development, organization, relations, etc.—would do a substantial service to our trade and commerce by increasing the number of properly qualified young men who are seeking the positions of assistants in our commercial houses.

Of course, no one will maintain for an instant that such a school could turn out young men acquainted with the details of commercial life, and qualified to take positions at the head of important branches of business—such knowledge and fitness can only be acquired in actual business life and through the experience of years. But it could turn out young men, seventeen or eighteen years of age, with a deep interest in commercial life, with considerable knowledge of the general history of commerce, with some acquaintance with the most important operations of modern commercial business, with some knowledge of finance, with a good English education, and with an ambition to succeed in commercial undertakings—in a word, a band of youth ready to enter upon the work of acquiring business experience with eagerness and enthusiasm. The training which such a school could furnish would enable a lad to learn the business more thoroughly and in a shorter time than he could have done without such advantages. Such a school would, moreover, offer an opportunity to learn modern languages thoroughly, so that those boys who wish to prepare themselves to represent our firms abroad could find good facilities for such education.

The statement of the case, it would almost seem, ought to carry conviction with it, but there is a number of considerations which, taken together, afford us an almost absolute demonstration of the desirability of such an institution.

In the first place, consider how few opportunities the modern business house offers the youth who enters it for an all-round training for commercial life. The division of labor, characteristic of our modern world in general, has been carried out in commerce also so far that it is difficult for a boy to get a chance to see all sides of the business. He is put into one department, and, if he succeeds in it, that constitutes a reason for keeping him there, unless some accident makes it absolutely necessary to try him in a new place, because no one else can be found for it. Working in a department of that sort for a long time is necessarily narrowing, and if the youth does not bring to his work a general training which enables him to learn from everything he sees or touches, he is very apt to cease growing, and, consequently, to fail at critical moments when responsibility must be laid upon him. A course of systematic training along business lines before entering on his work would prepare him for learning his special business more rapidly and thoroughly and would enable him to take up new work with so much the more certainty of success. The differentiation of work seems destined to be carried farther and farther, and with every step in this direction it will become more difficult for a boy to get a suitable training for business entirely within the business houses. It is, however, a notorious fact that the modern business man has no time to devote to apprentices, *i. e.*, to youth who enter his house to learn the business, and to whom he is bound to give time and attention, so that they may learn it. He now hires a boy and pays him oftentimes more than his services are really worth, but, in return, feels himself bound to do nothing more than get the most out of him he can without regard to whether the boy learns anything or not. In a word, the merchant or to-day cannot afford to take the time necessary to train the average youth into a good assistant.

The modern question, then, in this country, is not, can a school give a better training than an apprenticeship system; but can a school give anything worth the having, along this line, as the choice is between the school and nothing?

Now, experience shows, I think, not only that such a school can give something worth the boy's while to take, considering the fact that the apprenticeship system is gone, but that, even where the latter is in existence, the Commercial High School offers an element in the youth's training which is valuable and which the apprenticeship system does not afford.

This brings me to the consideration that the value of a Commercial High School to the trade and commerce of a community has been amply demonstrated by a somewhat extended experience in continental countries. In the Europe of to-day the law of competition is at work in the extremest form. The struggle of France and Germany and Italy and Austria and Russia for the supremacy in Europe has become so bitter and all absorbing that no means of getting ahead is left unused. The ordinary methods employed in the military sphere are striking, and so well known as to call for no mention. But the methods in the industrial sphere are no less striking and fundamental—passing over the question of prohibitory and differential tariffs, which have been used in the most unsparing way—it is sufficient for us, in this connection, to direct attention to the evident belief on the part of all the nations that, other things being approximately equal, the question of education is the fundamental question, and that that nation will ultimately triumph which secures the best educational results. Consequently, schools of all kinds have been established and developed, including military schools, to train soldiers and officers; agricultural schools to train farmers, who, by reason of intelligence, can hold their own against America and India; industrial schools of all sorts to train mechanics, foremen, etc., and, finally, recognizing the importance of Commerce to Industry, commercial schools of all grades, from those intended to train stenographers, clerks, shop girls, etc., to those for the future directors and managers of great business firms.

In proportion as competition has increased at home and abroad have these schools been multiplied. Within a short time the German government has established, in Berlin, a school where youth, preparing for business careers in Asia, could learn all the leading languages of Eastern and Western Asia, including Chinese, Japanese, Arabic and Turkish. France has done much the same, and in both countries there is the keenest rivalry in providing facilities for their youth to learn the leading modern languages spoken in the Western World, especially English, Italian and Spanish. Belgium, which is so largely dependent for its prosperity on foreign trade, is following rapidly along the same line.

In Germany, the apprenticeship system in the business houses is still preserved, and the laws enable a parent to hold a merchant to a pretty close account for his duty toward the apprentice. But in spite of this fact, the popularity of the commercial high school is rapidly increasing, because it is recognized that it offers a training for which the apprenticeship system is no adequate substitute. Many merchants allow youth in their employ, who are bound to service for a term of years, to attend these schools for a certain number of hours a day, and even pay their tuition for them to boot; because they consider that the efficiency of the boys is vastly increased by it.

The results of these schools are evident, not merely in the improvement in business methods, which has gone on very rapidly in the last twenty years in these countries, but also in the work of these nations in foreign trade. Youth who have

had such a training are eagerly sought by English houses, either in England itself or in English trade centers. It is a well-recognized fact that German youth are, to an appreciable extent, supplanting English lads in the great commercial houses of London.

Various parliamentary commissions, appointed to examine into the causes of recent industrial depression in England and the reasons for the rapid growth of German commerce in places hitherto entirely subject to English influence, have emphasized this fact, and have, furthermore, called attention to the circumstance that these German youth, who are employed in English houses, soon set up business for themselves and become most efficient agents of German firms in the very heart and center of English trade. They attribute the willingness of English business men to employ German youth in preference to English youth, chiefly to the fact that they ordinarily possess a much better general and special training. It is a significant fact, in this connection, that there is not, in all England, a single commercial high school which would bear comparison with any one of a hundred in Germany.

The most striking testimonial to the value of such schools to the trade and commerce of the locality and nation is to be found in the fact that the great majority of the most prominent continental schools are supported not by the government but by private associations of merchants and business men in general, or by boards of trade, chambers of commerce, and similar organizations.

A further evidence that the training of these schools is considered valuable may be seen in the fact that in spite of the high tuition fees the attendance is rapidly growing. Thus at the School of Higher Commercial Studies, in Paris, where the tuition is \$200 a year—equal to, say, \$250 or \$300 in this country—a rate far in excess of that charged in any schools here, the attendance rose by regular stages from 65 in 1881-82—the year of opening—to 244 in 1892-93.

The Superior School of Commerce, of Paris, has graduated nearly 6,500 youth since its establishment in 1820, though the tuition is also very high for French conditions, being \$150 per year.

It is hardly necessary to say that these schools are recruited—not from the poorer classes of the community, but from the well-to-do—in fact, their pupils are the sons of successful business men themselves. In America such schools must be open to all.

Before turning to the second proposition which I shall advance on this subject, I may remark, in passing, that the kind of school I am arguing for does not exist at present in any American community. The so-called business colleges, which are so numerous in our cities, are doing, many of them, valuable work; but they have to do chiefly with facilities—they train their pupils for what might be almost called mechanical work. They offer courses, running from three to six months—in extraordinary cases to a school year of nine or ten months. They are, in their worst specimens, mere cram shops, and do almost nothing toward training their pupils in those habits of thought and conduct which, after all, are more important than mere technical knowledge.

I am arguing here for schools which take the boy at fifteen years of age and keep him steadily at work for three years, or better for four years, until he not only knows many things well, but until he has acquired such habits of steady work and

application, promptness, neatness and thoughtfulness, as will make him an invaluable assistant in any business office.

Now, such a school as this would not only be of value to our trade and commerce by furnishing it with properly trained lads, but, as already noted, to our existing system of public education as well. Our High Schools furnish an opportunity for our youth to obtain a preparation for college or the professional school; our Manual Training High Schools offer our boys an opportunity to get a preparatory training for the schools of engineering, or such a training as will enable them to enter with profit our machine shops and factories. The former trains—generally speaking—for the learned professions, *i. e.*, it gives a kind of training which a boy should have before he takes up his professional studies; the latter for the great department of the handicrafts and engineering professions. We need another institution, side by side with these, which will train for the great field of commercial activity and business in general.

If one objects to the statement that the course of the High Schools "trains for" professions, we may say instead, as indicated in the first part of this paper, that while it gives a liberal training, the subject matter of much of its instruction is such as to be specially useful to young men who expect to enter the professions; and it is in this sense and no other that the properly organized Commercial High School would train for business life. The result is the same in either case. They are both liberal institutions, giving a general training—using for this purpose in one case chiefly language and literature; in the other chiefly the sciences relating to society and business.

I may say, in passing, that the need of commercial education will not be satisfied by the establishment of a commercial course side by side with other courses in our existing high schools. All educational experience demonstrates that such a course does not receive that care and attention which are necessary in order to make it thoroughly efficient. Its interests would be habitually neglected and subordinated to the supposed interests of all older courses, and just as it was necessary to establish the Manual Training High Schools as separate schools and not mere courses in the Central High School in order to secure for them and the kind of training underlying them a fair chance, so it will be necessary to organize the Commercial High Schools separate from both.

Closely connected with the proposition that a Commercial High School is demanded in the interests of our public educational system, is my last proposition, that it is called for in the interest of the boys themselves. This is, of course, the converse almost of the first. It is proper that the community should provide facilities for the youth to get a preparation for college or the professional school; it is proper for it to provide facilities to get a preparation for the engineering school or for the life of the shops or the factories; but it is no less proper for it to provide facilities for the youth to get a training in preparation for the great field of business and commercial life. It is, indeed, unfair to look out for the interests of the youth who wish to enter a profession or take up engineering, and yet do nothing for him who wishes to enter a business career.

Of course, in planning such a school, reference must be had to the fair claims of an educational institution. Just as the high schools do not undertake to teach law or medicine or theology, but do aim to give that general training which is



common and desirable to the members of all the professions; just as the Manual Training High School does not undertake to prepare its students to be carpenters, machinists and engineers, but does aim to give that general training which is common to all the various branches of skilled manual labor, and which underlies the calling of engineers, so the Commercial High School would not undertake to turn out a cotton or wool or grain merchant, a banker, broker or insurance agent, but it would aim to give a training and a body of knowledge which would be found equally useful in all these and similar occupations. The Commercial High School would be expected to keep in mind, as its sister institutions, that the man is, after all, higher than his calling; that its work is education and training, not cramming, and that its pupils should be first of all honest men, intelligent and educated gentlemen and patriotic and public-spirited citizens, and then good brokers, bankers and merchants—or, rather, that they should be one and all at the same time.

Before closing it may not be amiss to indicate briefly the content of the curriculum of such a school. It should be, in my opinion, at least three years in length, and better four than three, admitting boys directly from the grammar schools of the city, as do our present high schools.

Accounting, of course, should occupy a prominent place. It ought to be taught more as a matter of principle than detail, *i. e.*, with an idea of enabling the pupils to understand easily any system which they may have to learn in subsequent life, rather than trying to make expert accountants of them in any one line. It should be at once more scientific and more practical than at present. It should be used, moreover, as a means of studying commercial and industrial life. If a man understands thoroughly the system of accounting which a great business house has developed as a result of its daily experience through years of work, he has gained an insight into some of the most characteristic features of that business.

The books of a great railway corporation, for example, are an epitome not only of the actual transactions of such company, but they are a reflex of the ideas of the managers as to some of the most difficult questions of policy in regard to transportation.

This subject of accounting needs, moreover, much more attention than it has received thus far. When it is impossible for the managers of a great railway system after months of effort to do more than indicate in a very general way what has been done with the funds belonging to the company, there is surely needed no argument on this question.

Side by side with accounting should be pursued, of course, the ordinary mathematical courses of a high school, except that some attention should be given to the application of arithmetic and algebra to the operations of commercial life—including operations in commission and interest, calculation of all sorts, foreign exchange, arbitration of exchange, foreign systems of weights, measures and money, interest on stock, bonds, annuities, premiums, etc.

The history of commerce and commercial systems should also form a constituent of the course. The youth should study the origin and development of commerce and its methods from the earliest times down to the present—both as to articles which have formed the staples of commerce and the methods by which business was transacted.

Commercial geography—dealing with the origin of, and the methods of obtain-



ing and producing, the various articles of modern commerce, should also receive much attention.

The study of commercial products and their peculiarities is also important. The youth who has completed such a course should know in a general way the various purposes, for example, for which the different kinds of wool are utilized—should understand why a manufacturer of woolen goods needs wool from a certain place in the world for his product, and why that particular kind of wool is grown successfully in that particular place. He should also be able to recognize by sight the most important grades and conditions of this product.

A consideration of the modern systems of transportation should also be included in such a course—not merely a history of its origin and development—but an examination of the different systems of railroad and steamship tariffs and the principles underlying them, together with the various methods of shipment and the law relating to the responsibility of shipper and transporter.

It would go without saying that opportunity should be offered to pursue modern languages so thoroughly that the pupil could speak and write them with fluency, so as to utilize them in business correspondence. In such a school Spanish should receive special attention, as the possibility of spreading our trade rapidly in the South American states depends, among other things, on our having properly educated young men who can go into those countries and transact business in their languages.

Training in penmanship and business correspondence, and the correct and fluent use of English, would be understood as fundamental elements in such a course, while general history and literature, American history and American literature, and our American political system and political economy, should all receive that ample attention which their importance in the liberal training of educated American citizens demands. Opportunity should also be given to those students who desire to learn stenography and typewriting and the other subjects of instruction represented in our ordinary business college courses.

It is believed that a curriculum based on these ideas, worked out in its details by competent educators and properly taught by experienced teachers, could afford a training which every young man would do well to obtain before entering upon a practical career in business. He would acquire habits of work and methods of working which would be invaluable to him. He would develop the moral qualities necessary to a good man of business—a certain aptitude for commercial affairs, a desire for work, the love of order and economy, the spirit of enterprise, clearness of judgment and uprightness. He would acquire a certain amount of information and a habit of observation and reflection upon what he experienced in business that would stand him in good stead through all his subsequent life.

He would, in short, have a good preparation to begin to learn his business, and the advantages of his early training would show themselves more and more clearly as time went on.

## Appendix D.

### THE FREE LECTURE SYSTEM OF NEW YORK CITY.

The movement for free evening lectures in the public schools of New York was inaugurated some ten years ago. The suggestion had been made that lectures on scientific and historical subjects would prove very beneficial to a large class in the community. A bill was accordingly introduced into the legislature and was approved by the governor on June 9, 1888, authorizing the board of education to employ competent lecturers to deliver evening lectures on the natural sciences and kindred subjects, to provide necessary books, stationery, charts and other equipment, and to arrange for free lectures in at least one school in each ward of the city. This act was twice amended to give the board the power of free advertising and of locating the lectures, if necessary, in other than school buildings. Fifteen thousand dollars were appropriated for the first year, and between January and April, 1889, 186 lectures were given in six school houses to a total attendance of 22,149, an average of 115 at each lecture. From October, 1889, to April, 1890, 339 lectures were given in seven schoolhouses to a total attendance of 26,632, an average of 81 at each lecture. The experience of the second season showed the necessity of more adequate supervision, and Dr. Henry M. Leipziger was appointed special superintendent for this work. A new system of administration was adopted, the corps of lecturers was changed, the use of the stereopticon was introduced, and special efforts were directed to announcing and explaining the lectures. The result was an increase during 1890-91 of over 50,000 in attendance as compared with the previous year. Since then the growth has been constant. In 1897-98, 1,597 lectures were delivered at forty-one different places to a total attendance of 509,571.

Mr. Leipziger says very truly,<sup>(1)</sup> however, that "these figures do not convey the real significance of the movement. The continuity of interest is the most satisfying sign. The demand for the lectures, the many expressions of pleasure and of benefit derived, all indicate that this scheme for adult education has come to stay. Eight years ago 185 lectures were given in six places; about 25,000 was the total attendance. Now forty places, and an attendance of half a million. Has not an intellectual appetite been created, and, like other appetites, does it not grow by what it feeds on? \* \* \* How could it be otherwise, if we survey what has been presented to these half a million of learners by 200 teachers? Every realm of human knowledge is represented. My aim has been to get the best information possible and to present it in popular form, so that the truth may reach the largest numbers.

"The subjects during the past winter have all been arranged in courses of from four to ten each. Let me just name a few of these courses:

<sup>(1)</sup> Address at the Eighth Annual Reunion of Lecturers in the Free Lecture Course in New York City, May 30, 1898.

"Six lectures on 'Electricity' have been repeated seven times.

"Six lectures on 'Geography of the United States' have been repeated twenty-seven times.

"Six lectures on 'American History,' including 'Representative Americans' and 'National Government,' have been repeated twenty-six times.

"Six lectures on 'Literature' have been repeated nineteen times.

"Six lectures on 'Astronomy' have been repeated seven times.

"Six lectures on 'The Human Body' have been repeated ten times.

"Five lectures on 'First Aid to the Injured' have been repeated four times.

"Ten lectures on 'History of Civilization' have been repeated once.

"Six lectures on 'Music' have been repeated twelve times.

"Six lectures on 'History of New York City' have been repeated seven times.

"Six lectures on 'Municipal Government of New York' have been repeated four times.

"Five lectures on 'Descriptive Geography' have been repeated twenty-five times.

"With all the courses of lectures a syllabus containing a selected bibliography was distributed, and at many of the courses, particularly on historical and sociological subjects, a discussion between the audience and the lecturer continued, lasting frequently until the janitor reluctantly reminded the lecturer of the flight of time. With the course of lectures on 'First Aid to the Injured' a medical handbook was distributed, and at the close of the course an examination was held and certificates issued to those who passed it creditably. These facts are told to bring more clearly before you the truth that the chief purpose of the lecture course is education. And I therefore say that, considering the serious nature of the subjects treated, that the result of the course just closing is most gratifying. It has proven that the people are awakening to the fact that education is a *continuous performance*, that the school gives but the alphabet, that the words must be formed during life.

"One further feature of last season's work, just begun, deserves more than a passing notice. The experiment has been made of bringing the library into close connection with the lectures. Books relating to the topics treated at the various lectures were borrowed from the free circulating libraries and lent to such of the auditors as desired to continue their reading. Never were there enough books to satisfy the demand, and while the books were given without any of the customary safeguards used by libraries, all the books have been safely returned.

"The fact has been established that the people will come—that the nation will go to school. During the coming year I shall suggest to our committee the wisdom of establishing two kinds of lectures, one for larger audiences, where subjects that appeal to large bodies will be treated, and at the other, more special in their nature, and where those only will come who are interested in that particular subject; that the entire winter at any particular center be devoted to but one or two subjects, and that definite course of reading or study be followed. I am sure that by this time we have prepared some such body of students. The division that I have suggested will satisfy those who are already prepared for higher study and those who are just entering on the appreciation of the delights of intellectual pleasure. For—believing, as I do, in the educational purpose and value of these lectures—I also believe, to an extent, in their wisdom from the recreative side. The character of



our pleasure is an index of our culture and our civilization. A nation whose favorite pastime is the bull fight is hardly on a plane with one that finds pleasure in the lyceum lecture. So if we can make the pleasure of our people consist in the delights of art, in the beauties of literature, in the pursuit of science or the sweet influence of music, and gradually turn them away from so much that is lowering in our midst, are we not doing a real public service, and is not this theory the real foundation on which the support of the free public library rests? Is not refinement, too, one of the ends for which we are aiming, not alone knowledge, but culture, not alone light, but sweetness, and if we can turn our youth from the street corner to the school playground, transformed into a temple of learning, are we not helping to that end?

"One thing can positively be said as a result of this lecture movement—for it is a movement, since it is full of life—that there is a constantly growing element in this New York of ours that is looking for intellectual and spiritual guidance, who welcome the knowledge of the scientist, are moved by the skill of the artist, are touched by the words of the orator and inspired by all to loftier lives. And it seems to me that men who spend their lives in accumulating knowledge, in adding to the world's treasury of wisdom, should find the greatest light in its dissimulation.

"It has given me the greatest pleasure to receive letters from university professors who looked at the beginning with some slight scorn in the attempt to popularize knowledge, in which they now admit their change of view. They certainly have carried out the advice of one of the speakers at a certain college dinner to some professors, 'that they should rise superior to their own superiority.'

"The scholar owes his highest duty to the state. It is his duty to do what he can to raise the moral tone of the community in which he lives, to be of it, not above it; not to be lost in the mass, but to help leaven it. And never was that duty more demanded than in a great democracy, for our republic is still on trial. Nobly is it weathering the gales that beset it, for the popular conscience has always responded to the right. So I say the highest duty that our scholars can perform is to bring their knowledge and raise the average. We have faith in democracy, and we believe that, through popular education, as Mr. Larned says, 'the knowledge of the learned, the wisdom of the thoughtful and the conscience of the upright will some day be common enough to prevail over every fractious folly and every mischievous movement that evil minds or ignorance can set astir.'"

## Appendix E.

### VACATION SCHOOLS AND PLAYGROUNDS.

Vacation schools have come from a recognition of the necessity of providing in large cities some pleasant and profitable occupation during the summer for children of school age. Men and women interested in social questions have been the first to comprehend this, and so far it has been solved rather by the efforts of private individuals and associations than by the official action of boards of education, although responsibility in this matter must rest ultimately on these bodies. The first vacation school was established in Boston in 1885, and since then, as Miss American has pointed out,<sup>(1)</sup> vacation schools have been organized in New York, Chicago, Cambridge, Cleveland, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Indianapolis and New Haven.

In New York City the Association for the Improvement of the Poor secured in 1894 the use of four public school buildings and held summer sessions at a cost of \$5,000. The results accomplished by this association during the next four years led the board of education to adopt vacation schools as a part of the public school system, and to appropriate \$10,000 for the maintenance of ten schools during the summer of 1898. On the request of the Civic Club, the Philadelphia Board of Education opened three vacation schools in 1898, equipped them admirably and secured the best available teachers. Nature study and manual training were made the basis of the curriculum, but the work in each school was wisely left to the individual principals.

The first vacation school in Chicago was opened in the Joseph Medill School by the educational committee of the Civic Federation in 1896. Various forms of manual training work were included in the morning session, and weekly excursions for the pupils were also made possible through the generosity of the *Chicago Record*. The school accommodated only 360 children, but over 4,000 applied for admission. A similar school was conducted in 1897 by the settlement of the University of Chicago under the management of Miss Mary McDowell. The experiments of these two years showed a wide demand for vacation schools, and were so fruitful in good results that the Chicago Women's Club undertook this work in December, 1897. A vacation school committee was appointed, which obtained the aid of forty-three city and suburban women's clubs. Through the efforts of a joint committee a fund of \$9,600 was raised for vacation schools. Five schools were opened on July 5 with 2,000 pupils, while 6,000 applied for admission. The average daily

<sup>(1)</sup> See "The Movement for Vacation Schools" by Sadie American, in the *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898, and "Vacation Schools" by Richard Waterman, jr., in N.E.A. Proceedings, 1898, p., 404.

attendance was 1887, and the average cost per child for instruction was \$2.34 for six weeks and 78 cents per capita for the weekly excursions.<sup>(2)</sup>

The five schools opened in Chicago were placed in the sections where the greatest need of vacation schools was apparent, namely, in the tenement districts, largely inhabited by families of foreign birth or descent. Of the enrollment in the schools 20 per cent was Italian, 18 per cent Jewish, 18 per cent German, 12 per cent Irish, 11 per cent Swedish, 6 per cent American, 2 per cent Polish and 1 per cent colored.<sup>(3)</sup> Excellent results were accomplished in nature study and manual training, while the weekly excursions proved a most valuable part of the work. In a word, the experience of 1898 may be reckoned conclusive proof of the value to Chicago of vacation schools, and should be sufficient evidence to the board of education of the advisability of incorporating as soon as possible these schools in the public system.

Recent experiments and investigation have showed the need also of small playgrounds.<sup>(4)</sup> In several cities school yards have been opened under private management during summer months. The Massachusetts Emergency and Hygienic Association has maintained playgrounds in Boston for ten years, especially for young children. Each yard was well equipped for various kinds of kindergarten work and was under the charge of a regular instructor. Providence, Philadelphia and Baltimore have followed the example of Boston. In Philadelphia one playground supported by Hull House, and since 1896 a well-equipped playground, opened education granted the use of four school yards, for the maintenance of which the city council appropriated \$1,000. Each yard was in charge of the janitor of the school and of a kindergartner. Chicago has had for five years an excellent playground supported by Hull House, and since 1896 a well-equipped playground, opened by the settlement of the Northwestern University. In 1898 the city council made an appropriation of \$1,000, which was expended by the vacation school committee of the women's clubs in maintaining playgrounds in the yards of six school buildings. An additional contribution of \$750 by private parties helped to secure efficient supervision by a kindergartner for the younger children and by a young man for the charge of the older boys. In the matter of playgrounds,<sup>(5)</sup> as in the case of vacation schools, the results accomplished in the summer of 1898 were such as to justify prompt action by the board of education in opening all school yards, at least in the crowded districts, for free use as playgrounds on Saturdays during the school year and on every day through the summer months.

<sup>(2)</sup> See Report of the Chicago Vacation School Committee of Women's Clubs, 1898.

<sup>(3)</sup> See "Chicago Vacation Schools" by O. J. Milliken, Vacation School Superintendent in the *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1898.

<sup>(4)</sup> See "The Movement for Small Playgrounds" by Sadie American, in the *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1898.

<sup>(5)</sup> See "Municipal Playgrounds in Chicago" by Charles Zueblin in the *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1898.



## Appendix F.

### COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE LAWS.

The history of school legislation in the United States has no more interesting chapter than that which treats of the growing sentiment of the American public in favor of compulsory attendance and of the various attempts which have been made to secure effective laws. Proper legislation has not been easily secured, and even now changes are being constantly made which look to a widening of the scope of these laws and to an increase in ease and thoroughness in their enforcement. Massachusetts has taken and held a leading position in this, as in many other phases of school administration. New York has revised again and again her laws on this point, and now, in common with several other states, has provisions which seem at once fair to all classes in the community and readily and efficiently enforced.

While there is a general similarity in attendance laws, the school acts of different states vary considerably in details. Illinois makes the compulsory school age from seven to fourteen, and requires an attendance for at least sixteen weeks, twelve weeks to be consecutive. Pennsylvania has ordered the attendance of every child between the ages of eight and sixteen years, during at least 70 per cent of the time in which schools in the respective districts are in session. In Connecticut the compulsory school age is from eight to sixteen, and the law reads that every child shall attend during the entire session of the school in his district. New York makes a similar provision, while Massachusetts insists on an attendance of thirty-two weeks for every child between the ages of seven and fourteen.

Almost as much variation is found in different states in the exceptions which are made in favor of poor families, which need the earnings of children within the school age. Pennsylvania provides that the compulsory education act shall not apply to any child between the ages of thirteen and sixteen years, who is regularly engaged in any useful employment or service. New York limits compulsory attendance to eighty days each year for children between twelve and fourteen years of age, who are "regularly and lawfully engaged in useful employment or service," and frees all children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, who are similarly employed. In Connecticut children over fourteen years of age are not subject to compulsory attendance while lawfully employed. No child under fourteen can be employed lawfully in any mechanical, mercantile or manufacturing establishment, and no child under fourteen who has resided in the United States nine months can be lawfully employed in any work unless he has attended school at least twelve weeks of the preceding twelve months, and six weeks of this attendance must have been consecutive. Massachusetts makes no exceptions in its compulsory attendance law for children between seven and fourteen years of age,

and requires further that no child under sixteen years of age shall be employed in any factory, workshop or mercantile establishment unless he can read at sight and can write legibly simple sentences in the English language, or is regularly attending a public evening school.

Various methods are employed in different states to secure the enforcement of compulsory education acts. Illinois provides for the appointment of truant officers to report all violations under the law, and fixes a fine of not less than one or more than five dollars for all willful neglect on the part of any parent or guardian to secure the attendance of a child and a fine of not less than three or more than twenty dollars for every willfully false statement concerning the age of a child or the time he has attended school. Pennsylvania makes the fine not to exceed two dollars for the first conviction and not to exceed five dollars for each subsequent conviction, and requires the school board of cities and permits the school boards of boroughs and townships to employ one or more attendance officers. Connecticut fixes a similar fine at not to exceed five dollars for each week's failure on the part of any person to comply with the school attendance law, and orders every town to appoint three or more truant officers to enforce attendance. The law further orders the police to arrest all boys between eight and sixteen who are habitual truants during the usual school hours of the school terms, and permits them to question any boy under sixteen years of age during such hours and if he be a truant from school orders them to send him to such school. New York makes a violation of the compulsory act a misdemeanor, punishable for the first offense by a fine not exceeding five dollars, and for each subsequent offense by a fine not exceeding fifty dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding thirty days or by both such fine and imprisonment. But the penalty for violation may be avoided by the parent or guardian giving notice to the school authorities of his inability to secure the attendance of the child. In such case recourse is had to the truant school act. The penalty in Massachusetts is a fine of not more than twenty dollars, to which any person is liable having under his control a child between seven and fourteen years of age, who fails for five day sessions or ten half-day sessions within any period of six months to cause such child to attend school.

The school attendance laws of these typical states seem to contain in varying proportions the essentials of proper legislation on this point. It is common experience, however, that the penalties and the other means of enforcement are inadequate to secure the proper results unless provision is made also for truant schools which are described in the following appendix.

## Appendix G.

### PARENTAL SCHOOLS.

Permissive or compulsory acts looking to the establishment of truant or parental schools have been passed by a number of states. Pennsylvania has enacted that "boards of directors or controllers of any school district, or of two or more districts, may establish special schools for children who are habitual truants or who are insubordinate or disorderly during their attendance upon instruction in the public schools, and may provide for the proper care, maintenance and instruction of such children in such schools." The child may be sent directly to the school with the consent of the parent or guardian, but otherwise only after conviction before a proper magistrate. The sentence is for a period not exceeding the remainder of the school term in the respective district, and the child is subject to parole for good conduct by the authorities of the school after four weeks' attendance. Pennsylvania further permits the school directors of any district not having a parental school to contract with any other district for the care of truant or disorderly children. Practically the same provisions are made by the state of New York with an additional requirement that industrial training be furnished in every truant school.

Massachusetts has in general the most adequate compulsory education law, and enforces this in part by the compulsory establishment by each county, with three or four exceptions, of a county truant school, the parental school of Boston being reckoned the county school for Suffolk. The state provides further that two or more committees may for the purpose of economy unite in the support of a union truant school which must in no case be at or near a penal institution. The term of sentence is for a period not exceeding two years, and the county commissioners may, with the approval of the justice who imposed the sentence, discharge or after notice to the school authorities parole a child, and a special provision is made for the temporary release of a child in case of death or serious illness in his immediate family. The courts are given considerable latitude in the enforcement of the truant act. A magistrate, for example, may make such order as he deems expedient concerning the payment by the parent of the cost of the support of any child while in the county school; may place a child, after conviction, not in a truant school, but under the oversight of a truant officer for such a period and upon such conditions as he may deem best. If the child violates the conditions of his probation the truant officer may, without warrant or other process, take the child before the court for another disposition of the case. If the children in the truant schools persistently violate the regulations of the school, they may, upon complaint by the county commissioners and after conviction in each case, be committed by the court to state reformatories. Minor provisions of the Massachusetts law are also interesting.

Any person who is convicted of inducing or attempting to induce any child to absent himself unlawfully from school, or who employs or harbors while school is in session any child absent unlawfully from school is liable to a fine of not more than fifty dollars. Truant cases may be brought before any magistrate, in the first instance by a summons or if that is not answered, or if it seems likely that it will not be answered, by a warrant, to be served by the truant officer or by any officer empowered to serve criminal processes. Truant officers do not receive fees for their services. They are empowered to make complaints, serve legal processes and carry into execution judgments under the compulsory attendance law.

A review and comparison of truant schools show certain principles and provisions which have led to the most satisfactory results.

(1) For the proper enforcement of compulsory school attendance acts, the establishment of truant schools should be sufficiently general as to make their influence felt in all parts of the state. While the establishment may be optional with the counties or with the boards of education in smaller towns and cities, it should be compulsory in large cities. Moreover, every community which is without a truant school should have the privilege and should be required to contract with some other community possessing a truant school for the care of its truants, or should be empowered to unite with other communities in the establishment of a school;

(2) Commitment to a truant school should be as free as possible from all stigma, and children convicted of penal offenses should in no case be assigned to such a school. The truant school, moreover, should not be located at or near any penal institution;

(3) If the consent of the parent or guardian can be secured, the assignment of the child to a parental school should rest with the board of education. If legal process is necessary, a summons should be used preferably to a warrant, and as far as feasible, the case should come before one court or one kind of magistrate in order to secure uniformity of judgment, and truant cases should be heard at a special time in a court room cleared for this purpose;

(4) Sentence to the truant school should be for an indeterminate period up to the limit of school age with a privilege of parole or discharge after four weeks, each case to be judged by the authorities of the school, subject to the approval of the superintendent in cities and of the school authorities in smaller communities;

(5) The truant school should be in session continuously, for to release the boys during the summer involves, in large cities at least, a distinct danger of deterioration;

(6) Since in every school there are several classes of boys of varying degrees of incorrigibility, the "cottage" plan of housing them has proved an advantage; this permits the ready separation of boys into fairly uniform groups and thus avoids the danger which would come from indiscriminate association of the older boys with the younger and of the more corrupt boys with those who are less evilly inclined;

(7) A truant school should control, if possible, sufficient outlying acreage as to give opportunity for at least orchard and garden work, which will at once permit proper out-of-door exercise and reduce the expenses of the school;

(8) The course of study should be distinctly different from that of the public schools and should emphasize in large measure hand-training. Truant and incorrigible boys are usually quite disinclined to purely intellectual work. In order to win them over to serious study their interest must be aroused from another side, and for this purpose manual training has proved of great value.

## Appendix H.

### SELF-GOVERNMENT BY PUPILS.

The problem of discipline in the public schools has been greatly simplified according to many experienced teachers by the introduction of self-government by the pupils. This question has recently come to the front to a remarkable degree among thoughtful educators. Chicago offers several notable examples of what can be accomplished in this way, not only in facilitating school discipline, but also in giving practical training in the habit of good citizenship.

Among the secondary schools, the Hyde Park High School has developed, on the initiative of Principal Charles W. French, an excellent scheme of self-government through the organization of pupils. In the John Crerar grammar school, the principal, John T. Ray, introduced about three years ago a similar plan which has been in practical operation with increasing satisfaction to teachers, to pupils and to parents. The details of the plan may be seen in the following:

#### RULES FOR PUPIL GOVERNMENT.

Motto: "*Of all—by all—for all.*"

I. On the first Monday of each school month a girl and a boy tribune shall be elected by ballot in each room above the second grade.

II. (a) The tribunes are the official spokesmen of the room. To them all complaints or reports of misconduct shall first be made by the pupils, and from them the teacher shall first seek any information pertaining to order or discipline.

(b) The tribune shall receive all complaints and investigate, caution, advise and warn pupils as to their conduct, settling disputes and protecting the rights of individuals and of the school against wrongdoers if possible.

(c) The tribune shall report misconduct to the teacher only after a pupil has been cautioned. The teacher shall deprive the offender of privileges until he goes to the tribune and makes proper pledges of future right conduct, when the tribune will ask to have the offender's privileges restored.

III. Pupils are expected not only to do right themselves, but to assist actively in influencing other pupils to right conduct by personal influence and warning, or by reporting misconduct to the tribune of rooms to which the offender belongs.

IV. (a) Citizens may be appointed from each room after the third week in each term to the number of one-half or more of the membership. Two-thirds elected by the pupils of the room and one-third and all further additions by the teacher.

(b) Citizens shall be elected or appointed from those who excel in personal good conduct, and particularly in assisting in the general good government of the school.

(c) Citizens are to be accorded all possible liberties about the school, the same as teachers. They are expected to take the same active interest at all times in the good order of the school as the teachers. They may enter the front door at any time, may leave the room when necessary and may sit in the reading-room before or after school.

(d) Citizens shall have the right to vote on all matters pertaining to the general welfare of the school, and from their number shall be appointed all committees of inquiry, etc.

V. (a) Tribunes or citizens shall be removed by the teacher or principal at any time for misconduct or lack of attention to tribune or citizen duties.

(b) Teachers may appoint additional citizens at any time for general good conduct or for special praiseworthy acts.

VI. A pin may be worn by the tribunes and the citizens to show their rank, privileges and duties.

"These rules were not written," says Mr. Ray, "from theory, but have been evolved through three years of careful experimenting by the principal and teachers of the John Crerar school. When the plan was first introduced, the pupils were led to see that they were responsible not merely for their individual conduct, but equally for the general good conduct and welfare of the school; that a wrong done by any pupil was a wrong against the whole school community. They were taught that the wrong acts of individuals should be corrected, if possible, by personal influence and counsel, either directly or through the proper officer. If this failed, it was their duty to make a report in order that the teacher might restrain or correct the disorderly or dishonest pupil.

"All surveillance of the pupils outside of the schoolrooms, on the stairs, during the recesses and on the playgrounds was entirely removed. The pupils were informed that right conduct and observance of all school regulations were expected of them out of the presence as well as in the presence of the teachers. Self-mastery and active assistance in influencing those unable or unwilling to control themselves properly were made the cardinal virtues of good citizenship in school.

"The pupils soon responded to the trust put in them. They became more self-respecting and deferential, and began to take a pride in the right conduct of the school. The well-disposed pupils asserted themselves and exercised a good influence over the careless or indifferent. They learned to settle among themselves the many little irregularities that formerly fell to the teachers, either by the influence of the older pupils or through the school officers—the tribunes and the citizens. Thus they learned the lesson that every democratic community must learn, namely, the necessity of regulating their own community affairs. They discovered the importance of choosing competent and conscientious officers and learned also that the largest liberties can be gained only by carefully protecting those which they have, from abuse, since most restrictions which have to be placed in a school or a community come from the abuse of liberty by the few.

"The habit of self-control and of active participation in the conduct of the school community became fixed, and will no doubt better fit the child for the more important citizenship of adult life. The practice of 'tattling' was carefully distinguished from the manly exposure of wrongdoing for the purpose of preventing or suppressing an evil. The children were thus educated to avoid in after life the idle gossip that is



pernicious or the greater evil of being indifferent to the enforcement of law, order and good conduct in the community.

"The unanimous opinion of the teachers participating in this experiment is:

"First, That there has been a marked improvement in the moral tone of the pupils;

"Second, That the government of the school, and particularly of the rooms, is much easier than by the old method;

"Third, That this plan can be applied as satisfactorily to the primary as to the higher grades, and makes possible the teaching of practical citizenship to all children from their first entrance to the school;

"Fourth, That the only way to teach citizenship successfully is by thus combining the practice of civic duties with theoretic instruction, and that both of these are essential elements of the course if the public schools are to fulfill the purpose for which they were established."



The pins, designed by Mr. Ray for the John Crerar School and since adopted in other schools, are represented in the accompanying cuts. The badges are printed in colors on celluloid and are enclosed in clasp pins to be worn by the tribunes and citizens.



## Appendix I.

### THE LEGAL STATUS OF THE CHICAGO BOARD OF EDUCATION.

The question of the legal status of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago, and its relations to the municipal government of said city, has been a fruitful source of discussion for many years past, and a great diversity of opinion has existed upon the subject.

It has been claimed on the one hand that the Board of Education of the City of Chicago and the City of Chicago are legally distinct bodies, the first created by the general school law of the State of Illinois, and the latter by the act for the incorporation of cities and villages. On the other hand, the contention has been that the Board of Education of the City of Chicago is now a mere subordinate department of the municipal government, exactly as was the case when the City of Chicago was governed under the provisions of the special charter of 1863.

This question has been raised, directly and indirectly, in sundry cases which have been before the Supreme Court of the state, and for the purpose of showing that the question is still unsettled, and can be determined only by further action on the part of the legislative department or subsequent decisions by the Supreme Court, it is deemed advisable to quote briefly from a few recent opinions of the court, bearing upon the subject.

In the case of *The People v. Brennan, et al.*, decided on December 26, 1898, the board of education contended that the civil service law had no application to its employes for the reason that said board is a separate and distinct quasi public corporation, created by the general school law of the state, and, therefore, could not be considered a mere subordinate department of the city government, and further contended that substantially all of the provisions of the city charter of 1863, relating to the management of schools, had been repealed by the general school law of 1872 and subsequent amendments thereto. The appeal was prosecuted by the board of education solely for the purpose of endeavoring to obtain from the Supreme Court a decision which would finally determine the legal relations existing between the City of Chicago and the board of education.

In deciding the case the Supreme Court held that the employes of the board of education are under the jurisdiction of the civil service commissioners, except so far as they are exempted by the civil service act itself, but declined to give any opinion which would determine the relations between the board of education and the City of Chicago. The only light which is shed by the opinion upon this very important question is the following language: "After a careful examination and consideration of the various statutes and decisions bearing upon the question, and the arguments of counsel, it seems clear to us that the Board of Education of the City of

Chicago is still connected with, dependent upon, and to some extent a part of, the municipal government of that city, and as such, that its offices and places of employment fall within the operation of the civil service act."

In the case of *Adams v. Brennan, et al.*, also decided on December 26, 1898, the court says: "The Board of Education of the City of Chicago is a public corporation, created by the legislative authority as an agent of the state, for the purpose of maintaining public schools and school buildings within that subdivision of the state. For the purposes of that function it receives from the tax payers, and holds as trustee, the school fund, and is bound to administer it for the beneficiaries of the trust."

In the case of *Kinnare v. City of Chicago*, 171 Ill. 332, decided February 14, 1898, the same being an action brought against the board of education and the City of Chicago to recover damages for a personal injury, the court held: "It, therefore, appears the appellee (board of education) is a corporation or quasi corporation, created *nolens volens* by the general law of the state to aid in the administration of the state government, and charged as such with duties purely governmental in character. It is simply an agency of the state, having existence for the sole purpose of performing certain duties deemed necessary for the maintenance of an 'efficient system of free schools' within the particular locality in its jurisdiction."

These few citations of authority are certainly sufficient to show that the legal status of the board of education has not yet been finally and irrevocably determined by the decisions of the court, and that, as above stated, the question will probably remain in doubt until there has been some definite legislation upon the subject, or a further decision of the Supreme Court, in a case where this question is solely and directly involved.

In view of the uncertainty which exists upon this subject, it has been deemed desirable that any proposed legislation, emanating from the recommendations of this commission, should contain provisions which, as far as possible, will settle this question, heretofore productive of much annoyance, delay and inefficiency in the transaction of business relating to the public school system of the city. (1)

DONALD L. MORRILL.

(1) See Appendix K, "A Proposed School Law for Chicago," Section 20.

## Appendix J.

### BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES ON CITY SCHOOL SYSTEMS.

The student who desires to investigate the history and the present condition of city school systems in the United States will find little material that is well-arranged, compact and easily accessible. No serious attempt has been made to summarize this subject since the valuable pamphlet of John D. Philbrick, on "City School Systems in the United States" was published by the Bureau of Education in 1885. There is, however, a wealth of material of various kinds. First of all, come the annual reports of the various superintendents of schools and the reports and rules of city boards of education. These are indispensable in any adequate study of municipal education. The reports of the United States commissioner of education include much that is valuable on various sides of the subject. The proceedings of the National Educational Association, of the New England Institute of Education, of the various state and interstate associations of teachers, both in the elementary and the secondary schools and in colleges and universities, repay a careful review. Much that is valuable can be found also in the files of various educational journals and in some volumes included in the International Education Series. More specifically of interest, aside from Philbrick's pamphlet already mentioned, is the report of the Committee of Fifteen, of the National Educational Association, on the training of teachers and the organization of city school systems. In addition to the articles and addresses from which quotations have been made, the following references are pertinent to the general scope of this report:

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## Appendix K.

### A PROPOSED SCHOOL LAW FOR CHICAGO.

An act to amend an act entitled, "An Act to Establish and Maintain a System of Free Schools," in force May 21, 1880, by repealing sections seventeen (17) to twenty-eight (28), both inclusive of article VI. of said act and by adding to said article VI. nineteen (19) new sections to be numbered respectively from seventeen (17) to thirty-five (35).

*Be It Enacted by the People of the State of Illinois Represented in the General Assembly, that*

An act entitled, "An act to Establish and Maintain a System of Free Schools," in force May 21, 1880, be and hereby is amended by repealing sections seventeen (17) to twenty-eight (28), both inclusive of article VI. of said act and by adding to said article VI. nineteen (19) new sections to be numbered respectively from seventeen (17) to thirty-five (35), which shall read as follows, to-wit:

SECTION 17. In cities having a population exceeding 100,000 inhabitants, from and after this act shall take effect, there shall be created a board of education, which shall consist of eleven (11) members, to be known as trustees, and to be appointed by the mayor, with the consent of the city council, two of whom shall be appointed for the term of one year, three for the term of two years, three for the term of three years, and three for the term of four years. At the expiration of the terms of any member of said board of education his successor shall be appointed in like manner and members shall hold their office for the term of four years from the first day of July of the year in which they are appointed. Any vacancy which may occur in the membership of said board of education shall be filled through appointment by the mayor, with the approval of the city council, for the unexpired term. If any person so appointed shall fail to qualify within thirty days after his appointment, the office shall be filled by a new appointment for the unexpired term.

SEC. 18. Any member of the board of education may be removed by the mayor upon proof either of official misconduct in office or of neglect of official duties or of misconduct in any manner connected with his official duties or otherwise which tends to discredit his office or the school system; or for mental or physical inability to perform his duty as a member, but before such removal of said member, he shall receive due and timely notice in writing of the charges and a copy thereof, and shall be entitled to a hearing on like notice before the mayor and to the assistance of counsel on said hearing.

SEC. 19. Any person twenty-one years of age, having resided in such city five years next preceding his appointment, shall be eligible to membership on such board of education.

SEC. 20. For the purpose of enabling such board of education to perform the



duties imposed and exercise the powers granted by this act, the board of education shall be and is hereby declared to be a body politic and corporate.

SEC. 21. The title to all property real and personal now or that may hereafter be acquired for school or educational purposes, and also the title to all property real and personal purchased for school or educational purposes with any school moneys derived from any source whatever, shall be vested in the city in trust for the use of schools and shall be at all times under the care and control of the board of education. All conveyances of real estate shall be made to the city in trust for the use of schools and all sales of real estate or of interest therein used for school purposes or held in trust for school purposes shall be made at the discretion of the mayor and the comptroller of the city upon the unanimous request of such board of education. The city shall have power to take and hold in trust for the use of schools property, real or personal, devised, bequeathed or transmitted to it for the purposes of education in said city, but all such property shall be under the care and control of said board of education. The board of education shall have power in the name of the city and for said city to dispose of such personal property used in the schools or other buildings under the charge of said board, as is no longer required for use therein, and all moneys realized by the sale thereof shall be paid over to the city treasurer, and be deposited or held by him to the credit of the school tax fund.

SEC. 22. All moneys raised by taxation for school purposes or received from the state common school fund or from any other source whatever for school purposes shall be held by the city treasurer, who is hereby constituted the treasurer of the board of education, as a special fund for school purposes only, subject to the order of the board of education upon warrants to be countersigned by the mayor and the comptroller, and no power given to the board of education shall be exercised by the city council of the city.

SEC. 23. Said board of education shall not add to the expenditures for school purposes anything over and above the amount that shall be received from the state common school fund, the rental of school lands or property, the income of all funds devoted to and set apart for school purposes, and the amount annually appropriated for such purposes. If said board shall so add to such expenditures, the city shall not in any case be liable therefor; and nothing herein contained shall be construed so as to authorize any such board of education to levy or collect any tax upon the demand or under the direction of such board of education.

SEC. 24. Said board of education shall from its own number elect a president, and shall also elect a secretary of the board, a superintendent of schools, a business manager, and an auditor, and shall also elect such other officers and employes as such board shall deem necessary, and shall prescribe their respective duties and compensations and terms of office, subject to the conditions hereinafter contained.

SEC. 25. Said board of education shall provide well-bound books, at the expense of the school tax fund, in which shall be kept the faithful record of all its proceedings. The yeas and nays shall be taken and entered upon records of the proceedings of the board upon all questions involving the expenditure of money, and none of the powers herein conferred upon the said board of education shall be exercised except at a regular meeting of said board.

SEC. 26. Said board of education shall have the entire charge, superintendence, and control of the public schools of the city, and shall have power, and it shall be its duty:

First—To erect or purchase buildings suitable for school houses and general school purposes, keep the same in repair, and protect them from unnecessary deterioration and injury;

Second—To buy, or to acquire property under the act providing for the exercise of the right of eminent domain, or to lease property, for school houses or school purposes, with the necessary grounds, or for the use of the board of education and to rent buildings or rooms for school purposes or for the use of the board of education;

Third—To furnish schools with the necessary fixtures, furniture, apparatus, fuel and such other supplies as in its judgment shall be necessary for school purposes;

Fourth—To maintain, support and establish schools, and supply the inadequacy of the school fund for the salaries of teachers from the school taxes;

Fifth—To determine from time to time how many and what classes of teachers are needed in the public schools, to employ teachers, to examine and determine the qualifications of applicants for appointment as teachers, to issue suitable certificates to all persons so examined and found qualified to serve as teachers and to fix the amount of the compensation of teachers, all, however, subject to the provisions hereinafter contained;

Sixth—To prescribe the studies in the different schools and the text-books to be used, but no text-books shall be used except upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools as hereinafter provided;

Seventh—To lay off and divide the city into school districts for the purposes of supervision and inspection as hereinafter provided, and from time to time to alter the same and to create new ones, as circumstances may require;

Eighth—To lease school property for a period not longer than ninety-nine (99) years from the date of granting any lease and to loan moneys belonging to the school fund and to collect debts due to the school fund and to prosecute in its own name all actions at law and equity necessary for the preservation of school funds and school property;

Ninth—To expel any pupil who may be guilty of gross disobedience or misconduct and to dismiss or remove any teacher whenever in its opinion he or she is not qualified to teach or whenever from any cause the interests of the school may in their opinion require such dismissal or removal, subject to provisions hereinafter contained.

Tenth—To enact by-laws, rules and regulations for the proper execution of all duties imposed upon the board, its members and committees; for the transaction of all business pertaining to the same, for defining the duties of all school officers, for the proper execution of all powers vested in the board by law and for the promotion of the best interests of the public schools and the public school system committed to its care;

Eleventh—To give in all grades of the public school system such a specific training in civics as will inculcate an enlightened sentiment of patriotism through a knowledge of the various forms of popular government and of the duties as well as the rights of American citizenship;

Twelfth—To establish an efficient system of civil service rules, in accordance with which all appointments and promotions and dismissals shall be made in connection with positions other than teaching positions in the service of the board.

Said board of education shall further have power,

First—To establish and maintain kindergartens for children under six years

of age, manual training, commercial and other high schools, normal schools, vacation schools and truant schools and a system of free educational lectures for adults;

Second—To establish and maintain evening schools and to provide special classes in such schools for the instruction of adult pupils and pupils whose avocations are such as to prevent their attendance upon day schools;

SEC. 27. The president of the board shall be elected annually in such manner and at such time after the yearly appointment of new members and not later than the second regular meeting of the board after such appointment, as the board may determine by its rules and shall preside at its meetings, and shall have the same power to vote thereat as any other member, but shall not have the power of veto; he shall exercise a general superintendency over the affairs of the board and shall perform such duties as may be imposed upon him by the rules of the board.

SEC. 28. The secretary of the board shall be elected annually, at the same time and in the same manner as provided herein for the election of the president, and shall receive such salary as the board may direct, and shall be required to give a bond for the faithful performance of his duties in such sum as the board shall from time to time determine. He shall have charge of the rooms, and such books, papers and documents of the board as pertain to his office, and shall, in addition to his duties as secretary of the board, perform such other duties, not otherwise provided for herein, as may be required by the board or by its committees. The secretary of the board is hereby authorized to administer oaths and take affidavits in all matters pertaining to the schools of the city.

SEC. 29. The superintendent of schools shall be elected for a term of six years and shall be paid such salary as the board shall from time to time determine, but this salary shall not be reduced during his term of office. He may be removed by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board, but only for cause upon written charges. He shall have the right of visitation and inquiry in all of the schools of the city, and shall report to the board of education on the educational system of the city, and upon the condition of any and all of the schools thereof. He shall have a seat in the board of education and the right to speak on all educational matters before the board, but shall not have the right to vote. He shall also, as often as he can consistently with his other duties, visit the schools of the city and inquire into the method of instruction, management and discipline. He shall select text-books for such studies as the board of education may determine shall be taught, and apparatus for such purposes as the board of education may authorize, and his determination thereof shall be final unless disapproved by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto. He shall have power to appoint assistant superintendents, supervisors, principals, teachers and attendance officers to such positions as the board of education shall from time to time authorize, to promote teachers and fix their grade in the salary schedule and dismiss any officer or teacher so appointed; provided, however, that all such appointments, promotions, compensations and dismissals shall be reported to the board and shall stand as final unless disapproved by a two-thirds vote of all the members thereof not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto; provided, further, that no teacher or attendance officer shall be appointed and no teacher be promoted until after examination and approval by an examining board hereinafter provided for; and provided, further, that every person applying for a

position as teacher when approved by the examining board shall be given by the superintendent a provisional certificate of qualification for two years, which after proof of success for this period shall be made permanent; and provided, lastly, that no teacher shall be considered definitely employed during good service and on good behavior until after such successful probation of two successive years.

SEC. 30. The business manager shall be elected for a term of six years and shall be paid such salary as the board shall from time to time determine, but this salary shall not be reduced during his term of office; he shall be required to give such bond for the faithful performance of his duties, as the board may determine. He may be removed by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board, but only for cause upon written charges. He shall have supervision over the business affairs of the board, and under its supervision shall have charge, custody and control of all securities of the board; shall collect rents and interest and fulfill the duties in general of financial agent of the board. He shall, subject to the prior approval of the board, appoint the architect or architects of school buildings, and advertise and award the contracts for the construction and repair of such buildings either wholly or in part and for the purchase of all supplies required for the board and schools or officers and employes of the board; provided, that he may, without such prior approval, expend for repairs and supplies a sum not to exceed \$200 in each case. He shall exercise a careful oversight over the construction of all school buildings and over all repairs on such buildings. He shall have the appointment, direction and discharge and shall fix the compensation in accordance with schedule of salaries established by the board, of the janitors, engineers and other persons whom he shall require to assist him in the business affairs of the board; provided, that all such appointments shall be to positions which the board of education shall have authorized and that all such appointments and dismissals shall be in accordance with the civil service rules established by the board, and shall be reported to the board at its next regular meeting and shall stand as final unless disapproved by a majority vote of all the members thereof not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto. He shall perform all other executive duties relating to the details of the business affairs of the board, but not subject to its prior approval, and report such acts, together with a statement of all expenditures for repairs and supplies not exceeding the sum of \$200 in each case, as aforesaid, to the board at its next regular meeting and said acts and expenditures shall stand as final unless disapproved by a majority vote of all the members of the board not later than the second meeting after the report is made thereto.

SEC. 31. A board of examiners shall be appointed to examine by written and oral tests all applicants for appointment as teachers in and for such cities and to recommend to the superintendent for certification those who pass the required tests of character, scholarship and general fitness. Such board of examiners shall consist of the general superintendent of schools, one assistant superintendent selected by him and three special examiners elected by the board of education upon the nomination of the superintendent; provided, that in the case of a vacancy, the superintendent must nominate to the board at least three times as many eligible persons as there are vacancies to be filled; and provided, further, that no person otherwise connected with the school system of the city shall serve as special examiner. The terms of the first three special examiners so elected shall be one, two and three years respectively, and as their terms respectively expire their successors shall be elected for a full term of three years which shall thereafter be the full and regular term of office of said

examiners. They may be removed by a two-thirds vote of all the members of the board, but only for cause and upon written charges. The special examiners shall be paid such compensation as the board of education shall prescribe. To be eligible as a special examiner, an applicant must possess either a bachelor's degree from a college or university, or an equivalent educational training, together with at least five years' successful experience in teaching since graduation. This board shall from time to time hold such examinations as the city superintendent may prescribe in accordance with the rules of the board of education, and shall certify to the superintendent for entry on the various eligible lists, the names of all who successfully pass. Except as superintendent or assistant superintendent, as supervisor or director of a special branch, as principal in a normal school or high school, no person shall be appointed whose name does not appear upon the proper list of eligibles. The examining board shall have supervision of all examination for entrance and graduation from the city normal school, and the general supervision under the direction of the superintendent of all examinations in the public schools of such city.

SEC. 32. Said board of education shall for the purposes of school inspection divide the city into special inspection districts, each of which districts shall include not more than ten schools, and shall appoint for each inspection district a committee of six commissioners who shall be residents of the district and who shall serve without compensation. The terms of the commissioners first appointed on each committee shall be for two members one year, for two members two years and for two members three years, and as their terms respectively expire their successors shall be appointed for the full term of three years, which shall thereafter be the full and regular term of office of said commissioners. Said commissioners are hereby authorized and directed to visit each school of the respective districts, to observe in detail the work and equipment of each school and its teaching and discipline and the sanitary and other arrangements of the school building, and to make reports as a committee direct to the board of education. Said board of education shall have power to appoint an inspector with such assistants as may be needed to investigate and report upon the recommendations of each committee of resident commissioners; but the inspector and assistants shall not be otherwise connected with the school system.

SEC. 33. All contracts to be entered into by or in behalf of the said board of education in connection with the erection and repair of school buildings or the purchasing of supplies, when the expense thereof shall exceed the sum of \$200, shall be let to the lowest responsible bidder in the manner to be prescribed by the rules and regulations of the board. All of such contracts shall be signed by the president of the board of education, or in his absence, by such other officer as the board may designate and shall be attested by the secretary of such board. The board of education shall have power by its by-laws to prescribe the period of all advertising for contracts to be entered into by or on behalf of said board, the rules which are to determine the acceptance or rejection of all bids given for any work, labor or materials advertised for, and the security to be required to insure the performance of such contract.

SEC. 34. For the purpose of securing a better enforcement of any compulsory education law now existing or which may hereafter be enacted, it is hereby made the duty of all police officers of such city to give assistance to the board of education in that behalf, and particularly to question any boy or girl under fourteen (14) years of age who is found frequenting the streets of the city during school hours and at

the time not under parental control, and if such child is a truant, to report the case to the proper officers of the board of education, and to give to such officers any and all information at their disposal relating to such cases.

SEC. 35. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act, and all provisions of any special city charters relating to schools in cities of over 100,000 inhabitants are hereby repealed, but nothing herein contained shall be construed as repealing an act entitled, "An Act to Provide for the Formation and Disbursement of a Public School Teachers' and Public School Employees' Pension and Retirement Fund, in Cities Having a Population Exceeding 100,000 Inhabitants," approved May 21st, 1895, and in force July 1st, 1895.



## Appendix L.

### ADVISERS TO THE CHICAGO EDUCATIONAL COMMISSION.

The following gentlemen kindly consented to act as advisers to the commission, and by personal interview or by letter rendered much valuable service in the preparation of the report.

F. L. BLISS, Principal, High School, Detroit, Mich.

RICHARD BOONE, President, Normal School, Ypsilanti, Mich.

EDWARD BROOKS, Superintendent of Schools, Philadelphia, Pa.

ELMER E. BROWN, University of California.

NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER, Columbia University.

JAMES H. CANFIELD, President, Ohio State University.

JOHN W. COOK, President, Illinois State Normal University.

CHARLES DEGARMO, Cornell University.

N. C. DOUGHERTY, Superintendent of Schools, Peoria, Ills.

ANDREW S. DRAPER, President, University of Illinois.

WILLIAM L. DUDLEY, Vanberbilt University.

LARKIN DUNTON, Principal, Boston Normal School.

S. T. DUTTON, Superintendent of Schools, Brookline, Mass.

WARREN EASTON, Superintendent of Schools, New Orleans, La.

CHARLES W. ELIOT, President, Harvard University.

D. W. FISHER, President, Hanover College.

C. B. GILBERT, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, N. J.

DANIEL C. GILMAN, President, Johns Hopkins University.

AARON GOVE, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colo.

J. M. GREENWOOD, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Mo.

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, United States Commissioner of Education.

EDWARD L. HARRIS, Principal, High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

PAUL H. HANUS, Harvard University.

W. N. HAILMAN, Superintendent of Indian Schools, Washington, D. C.

G. STANLEY HALL, President, Clark University.

CHARLES D. HINE, Secretary, State Board of Education, Connecticut.

B. A. HINSDALE, University of Michigan.

JAMES L. HUGHES, Supervisor of Schools, Toronto, Canada.

RAY GREENE HULING, Cambridge, Mass.

JOHN JASPER, Superintendent of Manhattan and the Bronx, New York City, N. Y.

RICHARD H. JESSE, President, University of Missouri.

L. H. JONES, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

DAVID STARR JORDAN, President, Leland Stanford, jr., University.

D. L. KIEHLE, University of Minnesota.  
HENRY M. LEIPZIGER, Assistant Superintendent, New York City, N. Y.  
SETH LOW, President, Columbia University.  
E. O. LYTE, Principal, State Normal School, Millersburg, Pa.  
JAMES MACALISTER, President, Drexel Institute.  
WILLIAM H. MAXWELL, Superintendent of Schools, New York City, N. Y.  
W. H. MORGAN, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.  
J. H. PHILLIPS, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Ala.  
GEORGE M. PHILIPS, Principal, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.  
WILLIAM B. POWELL, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.  
HENRY SABIN, Ex-State Superintendent of Schools, Iowa.  
EDWIN P. SEAVER, Superintendent of Schools, Boston, Mass.  
J. G. SCHURMAN, President, Cornell University.  
CHARLES R. SKINNER, State Superintendent of Schools, Iowa.  
JAMES HENRY SMART, President, Purdue University.  
F. LOUIS SOLDAN, Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.  
THOMAS B. STOCKWELL, State Superintendent of Instruction, Rhode Island.  
C. F. THWING, President, Western Reserve University.  
ARNOLD TOMPKINS, University of Illinois.  
E. E. WHITE, Columbus, Ohio.  
HENRY A. WISE, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.

## ERRATA

On page 237 in lines 37 and 44 the words  
"two-thirds" should read "majority."

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